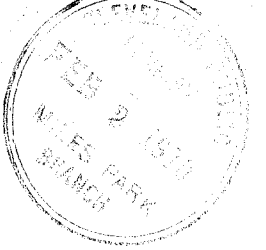

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RECENT IMPROVEMENTS IN THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE NAVY.

BY A NAVAL CRITIC.

In the development of the present day, improvements in the organization of all activities have become necessary for success. In making changes in fields of business effort the United States has taken the lead. The results accomplished have attracted attention everywhere, and foreign commissions have come to this country for the purpose of ascertaining, by direct inquiry and examination, the manner of organization and methods by which American manufacturers and railway managers carry on business.

Government organizations to be efficient must also take heed of the necessary changes due to the introduction of new machinery, new forms of output and new methods of business in private industries. A Government industry usually lags behind those supported by private capital. It is not dependent for success or existence upon profits. It does not go into bankruptcy because it fails to satisfy the consumer of its product. It is supported by an appropriation of public funds and is surrounded by traditions, established habits and prejudices which are difficult to set aside. The public looks on with a certain indifference at the arguments

NOTE.—This paper represents the views of the present head of the Navy Department as expressed in his annual report.—EDITOR.

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which accompany any proposed change and is likely to regard them either as academic or as having a foundation of prejudice.

The Navy, unlike an industrial establishment, renders no financial return on the money invested in it, but the profit accruing to the stockholders, the people of the United States, must be measured in terms of its preparedness for war and its success in battle. Congress, as the Board of Directors, votes the money for its maintenance and increase, and has the right to demand from the executive officials charged with the expenditure of the funds that not a dollar be wasted and that for each dollar expended an adequate return in efficiency be rendered. If these demands are met, the people of the country do not hesitate to authorize large sums for the naval establishment.

Sound organization is the only possible basis for wise, efficient and economical administration. System saves money; indirection and confusion waste it; both expend money, but in the one case an adequate return may be expected, while in the other such adequate return cannot be secured.

The natural divisions of naval administration are: The building of a fleet and the providing of its necessary bases or navy-yards, which are adjuncts of the fleet for the purpose of maintaining its efficiency; the manning of the fleet; the inspection of the fleet for the purpose of ascertaining at all times its condition; the employment of the fleet.

The Department of the Navy, as a separate unit in the executive branch of the Federal Government, has existed since 1798, when Congress created it by legislation; previous to that date the affairs of the infant Navy were managed under the War Department.

In 1815 Congress authorized the appointment of three Commissioners, who should be naval officers not lower in rank than post captains; these Commissioners were attached to the office of the Secretary.

In 1842, as the result of the recommendation of two or more Secretaries, Congress reorganized the department by dividing the civil duties of the Board of Commissioners among the chiefs of five bureaus, but making no provision for military control otherwise than by ignoring it, thus placing it in the hands of the Secretary himself. The plan as adopted by Congress coincided with a plan proposed by Commodore Charles Stewart with the

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single exception that Congress eliminated the bureau proposed by Stewart to control the personnel and *employment of the fleet.*

At no time has initial authority been granted to any person or persons other than the Secretary, who, in administering the affairs of his department, is the agent of the President of the United States. Congress, while exercising its constitutional right to provide and maintain a navy, and while prescribing, from time to time, rules for the conduct of the department, has, with few exceptions, left all questions of administration in the hands of the executive branch of the Government and has conferred on the Secretary of the Navy all administrative authority in the department.

All the business of the department has been carried on either by the Secretary or by the eight bureaus now provided. The bureaus are independent of each other, subordinate only to the Secretary, who must, presumably, decide all points of dispute among them.* Differences of opinion must frequently arise, and as these frequently involve matters of a highly technical nature and questions of military policy, the Secretary is seldom able to reach a decision without information and advice from naval officers or other persons having the necessary military and technical knowledge. Under the recent organization of the department no such closely available advisers and counsellors were provided for the Secretary, and he, presumably, sought advice from individuals in whom he had confidence or made decisions without impartial advice. Under such a system there is no assurance of continuity of policy, even though the Secretary may choose temporary advisers with sagacity.

In the business world advice must be paid for. It is not given unreflectingly. When it turns out ill it reacts on the adviser in his business and reputation. Here, then, is the principle of responsible advice. It reacts on the adviser. If good, it adds to his reputation and professional standing; if bad, it detracts in a corresponding measure.

It would appear on the surface that the requirements of responsible advice were met by the bureau organization, but events have proved, in fact, that the bureau chiefs are so absorbed in the

* By law the chiefs of bureaus can issue orders without the knowledge of the Secretary, and these orders have the same force and effect as if issued by the Secretary himself.

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details of their bureaus that they have not sufficient time to give to matters outside of them. They are naturally partisans of or apologists for their own bureaus, and are of little assistance in enabling the Secretary to reach a conclusion on matters which involve two or more bureaus or the interest of the service as a whole.

From 1842 until the Civil War period no substantial changes of organization were made. When the outbreak of that war made it apparent that the existing organization, while serving well enough for the construction, arming, and equipping of a fleet, afforded no means for intelligent direction of that fleet, Congress immediately authorized the appointment of an Assistant Secretary as responsible adviser to the Secretary in matters relating to the operation and employment of the fleet. The man for whom the position was created was Mr. Fox, a former naval officer.

The recent changes in the organization and methods of the Navy Department—in the business of its central or directing office at Washington and in that of its navy-yards, its outfitting and supply establishments—are supported by a clearly demonstrated necessity and purpose. Up to the time of the changes introduced by ex-Secretary Newberry, nearly a year ago, the organization of the department and of its navy-yards had not been materially changed in sixty-seven years—that is, since the establishment of the bureau system in 1842.

Secretary Meyer, on taking office, was confronted with the difficulties and perplexities of a newly established system which, though being carried out in a military spirit of loyalty and obedience, did not commend itself to the greater number of naval officers. Mr. Meyer first convened a board of officers, known as the Sperry Board, to consider and report how the various conflicting orders and regulations in force could be reconciled so that the plan of a navy-yard organization introduced by Mr. Newberry could have a fair trial and be systematically carried out, and what changes from this general plan of departmental and navy-yard organization should be made for the best interests of the Navy. This board was composed of bureau chiefs, flag officers afloat and other officers of technical and administrative attainments. The approval by the Secretary of that portion of the report which was unanimous and the promulgation of consequent changes in the regulations improved conditions somewhat.

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The next step taken by Mr. Meyer was to appoint a second board, known as the Leutze Board, to which he referred for consideration and recommendation the question of the proper status of the Bureau of Steam Engineering and the methods of carrying on the work of that bureau at navy-yards, a point upon which the Sperry Board had not been unanimous.

The approval of the report of this board and the promulgation of orders putting its recommendations into effect, while not materially affecting the consolidation feature of the Newberry plan, restored to the machinery experts of the Navy the control of machinery work, which, by Mr. Newberry's orders, had been intrusted to the corps of hull designers and builders.

Mr. Meyer having thus, within a short time, but after mature study of questions at issue, effected important changes in the details of navy-yard organization, while preserving the best features of the system established by Mr. Newberry, next turned his attention to the broad question of department organization.

To assist and advise the Secretary in this matter the Swift Board was convened. This board consisted of officers of the military branch exclusively, and in selecting the members the Secretary chose no chiefs of bureaus nor officers prominently identified with any of the bureaus. Since the Sperry Board had been a board on which every bureau had a representative, it was deemed proper that the Swift Board should be a military board, one which should consider the questions involved from the viewpoint of the military efficiency of the fleet for which the Navy Department exists.

The four divisions into which Mr. Meyer has grouped the varied duties of the Navy Department are: 1. Division of Operations of the Fleet; 2. Division of Personnel; 3. Division of Material; 4. Division of Inspections.

These divisions are simply logical groups of duties and have no heads other than the Secretary himself, but four officers of the military branch are detailed as aids to the Secretary and each of these is an adviser to the Secretary in matters under the cognizance of one of the divisions.

The aid for each division will keep him informed as to the state of that division and when called upon give him advice and suggestions in relation thereto.

The aids detailed are all officers of high rank, long experience

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and capacity, and unhampered by details and with time for the consideration of important questions they will fill a vacant place in the departmental organization and supply an urgent need.

The Division of Operations is a part of the Secretary's office and, as its name indicates, deals primarily with the operations of ships in commission, and of the strategic employment of all naval forces. The scope of its duties is, however, broader than this, including advisory duties in matters of naval policy, building programmes and military features of ship design. This division does not replace the General Board, but will act in close co-operation with it, the Aid for Operations being a member of that board.

This division, which has hitherto been lacking in the organization of the department, closely resembles the operating department of a railroad, the department which runs trains, handles passengers and freight and conducts the activities of the completed road.

The matter of ship design receives full consideration in the new plan. The Division of Operations, which includes the General Board, originates the military features. These are then referred to the technical bureaus for sketch plans, calculations and comments. If on account of technical considerations the desired military features cannot be fully assured, the plans must be modified until as much as may be possible of the desired military features are secured. The whole subject then goes before the General Board for discussion. During this period the board is assisted by officers, temporarily ordered for the purpose, who are deemed specially qualified to criticise the military effect of technical features in the new type of vessel under consideration. They will include officers who have obtained successful results in ordnance, engineering, or turret gun-work or in service with torpedo vessels. The final features once determined and approved by the Secretary, the duty of preparing and the responsibility for the final plans devolve upon the Bureau of Construction and Repair, as is now the case. In this manner advantage is taken of the special, technical and expert knowledge of all officers competent to express an opinion on the military and technical features of war-ship design.

The Division of Personnel comprises the bureaus of Navigation and Medicine and Surgery, the Judge-Advocate-General and

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the Examining and Retiring Boards—in short, the bureaus and branches dealing with the personnel of the fleet; and the Division of Material comprises the bureaus dealing with the construction, repair, equipment, fitting out and supply of the fleet, namely, those of Equipment, Ordnance, Steam Engineering, Construction and Repair, and Supplies and Accounts.

One of the features of this grouping is that it classifies distinctly the questions that may arise for the Secretary's decision. That is, such questions will in general relate exclusively to material, exclusively to personnel or exclusively to naval policy—that is, the handling of the fleet. In the old organization there was, for instance, no single adviser in matters affecting materials. The Secretary could go to the chiefs of the material bureaus, but if they differed among themselves there was no other authorized source of advice provided.

The Division of Inspections is intended to make applicable to the whole naval service the principles now exemplified in the Board of Inspection and Survey for ships. It will inspect all parts of the service ashore and afloat at stated intervals, reporting directly to the Secretary. Reports of defects and recommendations for changes will usually be referred to this division. The ordinary course at present is for them to go to the bureau responsible for the matter criticised, not a correct principle.

In a commercial business the inspection of the finished product is efficiently carried out by the customer, but the Navy has no customer. In time of war victory over the enemy is the aim, and if this be attained the Navy may be assumed to have been efficient to the degree required for success in the particular instance; but in times of peace the preparedness of the fleet must be determined by inspection and tests carried out by persons of the necessary technical knowledge, who have no other interest for the time being than to ascertain and report to the Secretary the true state of the Navy.

The Division of Inspections comprises all boards and individuals performing inspection duties (not, however, including acceptance inspection of purchased articles); and it is contemplated that these duties will be more considerable in extent than heretofore, the system of large commercial organizations being taken as a model. Besides the Board of Inspection for ships that has heretofore existed, a similar board of three members is created

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for the inspection of navy-yards and stations. All boards and officers on inspection duty will be free from administrative duties, and thus in no sense responsible for conditions upon which they are required to comment; and the results of inspection will be brought to the Secretary direct.

An accounting system which is wholly independent of the manufacturing departments at navy-yards will be established. Such a system is already established at the Boston Navy-Yard, after having undergone a successful trial there in recent months, and steps have already been taken to extend it to other yards. Hitherto all cost-keeping at navy-yards has been done by the working departments. This system is essentially wrong in principle and is contrary to modern commercial practice. The transfer of this work to an independent department must bring many beneficial results, not the least of which will be absolute uniformity of methods with a consequent reliability of results. Among the other beneficial results an important one is the facility with which managers and inspectors can follow the cost of work from day to day, thus determining how closely estimates are being realized, discovering where excessive overhead charges may be cut, informing themselves as to the comparative efficiency of different shops and machines, estimating time and cost to complete partially finished jobs, and guarding against the possibility of extending the allotment of funds for jobs or for periods of time.

The essential feature of the Newberry plan at navy-yards was consolidation, which has proved in the main successful. Consolidation, as far as permissible, must be a feature of any acceptable organization.

Consolidation, however, is an adjunct to business efficiency and not a controlling object; that is, consolidation should be carried to the point of its greatest effectiveness, but should not be carried for its own sake to the point where confusion and lack of efficiency may result. It is necessary to keep this point in view. Consolidation is an instrument, not a purpose; a means, not an end. The Newberry scheme consolidated everything, placing all the navy-yard activities under one technical head. The result was found to be lacking in some important requirements of efficiency, and the purpose of Secretary Meyer is, while retaining the valuable features of consolidation, to limit its application to that point at which its greatest efficiency is attained.

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A navy-yard is not wholly or even principally a manufacturing establishment. Its essential feature is that of a repair, outfitting and supply station for vessels of the fleet. It exists for the purpose and maintenance in good condition of the cruising fleet and only in a much less degree for the production of additions to the fleet. It has also a military character which must be taken into account. This dual condition must be considered in determining the necessary differences between its administration and that of a private manufacturing establishment. The latter turns out a practically uniform product from month to month and from year to year by methods which have been found by experience to be the most efficient; the former, on its civil side, executes such repairs, provides such equipment, partly manufactured in the yard and partly obtained from contractors, and provides such supply of coal, stores, provisions and fuel as may be demanded from time to time by the cruising fleet. Sometimes its activities are forced to their utmost capacity, sometimes they are substantially relaxed. Moreover, those activities relating to the efficient maintenance of the active fleet demand the constant supervision of the men who have, from their experience at sea, intimate personal knowledge of the necessities of the fleet—that is, the officers of the Navy who are assigned to duty as commandants and principal subordinate officials of navy-yards.

At the navy-yards the single manufacturing department recently called into existence is divided into two divisions—one of machinery and one of hull; thus, according with the almost universal practice in similar organizations, both public and private. The advantages of consolidation are thus carried to the greatest limit which is deemed practicable with advantage. All the shops of the same kind are placed under the control of one skilled officer, and as far as practicable all work of a common nature is concentrated. The consolidation of manufacturing features aimed at in the plan of former Secretary Newberry is not sacrificed, but, on the contrary, the principle is extended; the change merely lies in grouping shops for purposes of control in such a manner as to obtain the best expert knowledge of their direction. This is a change which the experience of the past year in the navy-yards leads careful observers to believe will result in a more effective, efficient and logical consolidation than was possible under the recent plan.

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The commandant* is made the actual manager of the navy-yard and the sole representative at the navy-yard of the Navy Department, its bureaus and offices. To him the Secretary, Assistant Secretary and bureau chiefs transmit all orders relating to military, civil or industrial features of his command. All orders to his subordinates emanate from or pass through him. He is provided with advisers and assistants in the persons of his executive, the heads of the hull and machinery departments and the several inspectors, and through them controls all the business of the yard.

The essential changes introduced by Mr. Meyer into the organization and administration of the Navy Department and navy-yards may be summarized as follows:

1. The provision of four responsible advisers; responsible in the sense that it is their duty to advise him on subjects within the scope of the division of duties with which they must become familiar.

2. The grouping of the bureaus into two divisions of personnel and material, according to the correlated nature of their duties.

3. The provision of an aid, who is charged with final preparation of plans and orders by which the fleet is managed and directed, the Secretary to personally give the necessary orders.

4. The establishment of a permanent and comprehensive inspection system of shifting personnel but permanent organization, reporting direct to the Secretary.

5. The establishment of a uniform system of cost-accounting at all navy-yards, separated entirely from the manufacturing and repair departments which do the work.

6. The separation of navy-yard work into two natural divisions of hull and machinery, with the commandant as the head of both divisions.

Secretary Meyer has thus, without appeal to Congress, and without taking from the bureaus any of the duties, powers or responsibilities imposed or granted by law, so grouped the Navy Department duties that he can control them personally, with the aid of *responsible* advisers who are not in any way concerned in or responsible for any of the supply features of the department's business.

A Naval Critic.

* Who is selected on account of his qualifications and so that he will have a sufficiently long term of office.

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MR. NEWBERRY'S NAVAL REFORMS.

BY REAR-ADMIRAL CASPAR F. GOODRICH, U.S.N.

I.

THAT the Navy has made great advances within the past few years is of common knowledge; in what respects these advances are most important is less well known. A brief statement seems therefore proper and timely of the steps taken by the recent administration to make the naval organization more efficient and more economical. It is improper, as well as forbidden by regulations, to speak of what has happened since March 4th of this year, even in terms of praise. The purpose of this article is purely historical; with current developments it has no concern, however gratifying and encouraging they may be.

The recent increase both in the number and the individual power of our battleships is so notable as to appear almost phenomenal. On January 1st, 1905, the navy list contained twelve battleships and two armored cruisers completed; the heaviest of the former displacing 12,500 tons.* On January 1st, 1909, there were twenty-five completed battleships and ten new armored cruisers. The latest battleships had reached 16,000 tons displacement and the two original armored cruisers had been disrated to "cruisers, first class." It would not be unfair to hold that the fighting value of the American fleet had meanwhile tripled. The growth in size of the "capital ship" during this interim is shown in the statement, from the same source, that of the six "under construction," the last are designed to displace 21,825 tons. While a continuous expansion under this head might have been normally expected, this sudden leap is probably due to the necessity of producing vessels to meet those

* Displacement is the total weight of the ship and everything on board.

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of the famous British "Dreadnought" type on favorable terms. It may be mentioned, incidentally, that our own smaller ships, the "Michigan" and "South Carolina" of 16,000 tons, are very highly considered by many experts who see in them a happy combination of battery, armor, speed and habitability and who believe that they need ask no odds from even the "Dreadnought" herself. Since 1904 no armored cruisers have been authorized by Congress. This class seems to have fallen into general disfavor. It is practically as costly in construction and maintenance as the battleship. Its sole superiority, that of speed, is not thought to compensate for its lack of power to give and take heavy punishment.

The concentration of effort upon strengthening our "first line of defence" by turning out battleships to the comparative exclusion of other rates must commend itself to all who realize the advantage of abundant force when and where needed, and the impossibility, on the outbreak of war, of making good any deficiency in armored craft. Other forms, such as torpedo-destroyers and submarines, have not been neglected, but it has been deemed better to give them a minor share in our ship-building programme. It would be difficult to impeach the wisdom of this policy.

That some of our later additions to the unarmored fleets bring an inadequate return for the money expended may possibly be contended by some authorities; with how much justice or error, this paper, not being controversial in character, will not pretend to say. Neither will it discuss the value of certain types which, unlike the battleship, have not commanded universal acceptance. Naval science is no more free from sects than is medical science. Were it dead or moribund, there would be no opposing schools of thought.

In the matter of batteries, torpedoes, powder and projectiles, the progress has been steady if not theatrical. No startling innovations are to be chronicled, but a constant improvement along all lines. The questions relating to the pointing of the guns have received much attention. It is a subject of pride that certain of our mechanical appliances to that end have been adopted (for experiment) by foreign navies. No one who knows their value can doubt that this adoption will be permanent—until some ingenious Yankee devises something better. Every navy to-day

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uses telescopes in bringing the sights on the target and therein does honor to our own Captain Fiske, U.S.N., the first to urge the use of this now indispensable instrument. The handling of ammunition has been facilitated and the necessary apparatus made stronger and simpler. The ordnance authorities, in conjunction with the ship-designers and aided by the counsels of officers afloat, have made creditable headway in overcoming the dangers that have caused the history of our turrets to be the saddest in all naval annals. These authorities foresee, it is understood, a demand for heavier guns than the present standard twelve-inch and are making provision to supply that demand when it shall arise. In the race for naval preponderance, it is well to keep in the lead. In this respect, the traditions of our own service will be observed, for it has always contended for heavier weapons than those carried by its possible antagonists.

In the question of types and the general features of battleships, Mr. Newberry's recomposition of the Board of Construction, when he was Secretary of the Navy, gave the sea-going officers so large a majority that their complaint that they were quite ignored was no longer valid. No one can deny the desirability of furnishing the workman with the tools he believes essential to his craft. Whether in the past this obligation received insufficient recognition need not be discussed here. Suffice it to say that Mr. Newberry's order ought to yield results satisfactory to those who have to navigate and fight our men-of-war and who alone, in the public eye, are responsible for the nation's safety.

One episode may be referred to in this connection out of which much good has already come. The conference held at Newport a year ago on the plans of our new vessels brought together many officers of all grades and corps who, after interchanging their views with perfect freedom, reached a consensus of opinion and of recommendation that must inevitably bear excellent fruit. Never before had members of the naval service so untrammelled an opportunity of hearing all sides of any relevant topic, of weighing their own propositions against honest and intelligent adverse argument and thus of receding from or being strengthened in their own positions. The report of this conference is, very properly, kept confidential, for it deals with important subjects for our own enlightenment and not for that of our neighbors,

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but that the move was well advised the event has shown conclusively.

It is not so much in the tangible evidences of growth as illustrated in more and larger ships, the adoption of turbines as the propelling agency and in a more numerous personnel that the work of the last administration is to be perceived by the painstaking investigator as in the changes brought about in a desire to place the Navy's business methods on the highest plane of efficiency. The theme is not of that soul-compelling interest afforded by new armored vessels and a world-encircling cruise, but the thoughtful patriot willing to make any necessary sacrifice in order to build and maintain a powerful fleet, yet solicitous lest regard be not had for wise and remunerative expenditure of public funds, will doubtless welcome an account of what was done to introduce approved methods with their consequent enhanced rapidity of communication, economy of production, lessened red tape and lower prices paid for naval supplies. It is only because this particular phase is less evident and little known that especial emphasis is laid upon it here—with the candid admission that, in other matters, equally laudable and more obvious progress has been effected.

To appreciate rightly what has been accomplished, a general understanding of the situation is essential. The business of the Navy Department is by law "distributed in such manner as the Secretary of the Navy shall judge to be expedient and proper among the following bureaus: viz., Yards and Docks, Equipment, Navigation, Ordnance, Construction and Repair, Steam Engineering, Supplies and Accounts, Medicine and Surgery." The legal services required in the ordinary routine of discipline and of affairs are rendered by a Judge-Advocate-General and a Solicitor. In these offices and officers the statute has provided the Secretary with the necessary machinery for discharging his onerous and important duties. For advice on the numberless questions of naval policy, the use of the fleet and such other matters as he may refer to it, the Secretary looks to the General Board, composed of thoughtful and approved officers and presided over at present, and it is hoped for many years to come, by the Admiral of the Navy, George Dewey.

The bureaus of the Navy Department have been, in the past, the target of much criticism; yet it would seem as if some legal-

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ized instrumentalities must exist for carrying on the department's work, and that if they were abolished to-day a substitute, practically the same thing under another name, would have to be created to-morrow. The bureaus have, of course, the defects of their qualities. Their chiefs, selected from eligible officers of the Navy, are appointed by the President and confirmed by the Senate. They stand, as they should stand, towards the Secretary of the Navy as duly authorized and competent counsellors. Moreover, they are zealous, ambitious and, as a rule, able, but, being also human, they are apt to regard their own branch of the Navy as more important than any other branch. Can we blame them altogether if to their eyes the whole seems sometimes less than their own part? It is easy to comprehend that, living in daily close personal and official relations with the Secretary, who is usually lacking in experience in service matters, when first assuming his portfolio, a clever and persuasive bureau chief might, with the best and purest of motives, induce his superior to adopt a line of action which would not be to the interest of the Navy as a whole. The bureau chief is not culpable in urging views which he believes conscientiously to be wise, prudent and advanced; neither is the Secretary for lending credence to an officer who commands his respect and confidence. Every general manager finds himself in a similar case. That of a big steel plant is importuned for heavier rolls in the rail-mill or more furnace men or new spurs in the yard railway, or a recently patented crane or an increase in the clerical force, etc. He must weigh these several demands, giving here a little, there much. At some points he concedes not at all or directs a reduction. Fortunately for him, he has risen to his position of authority, climbing the steel-making ladder slowly but surely, never skipping a rung and always secure of his footing before reaching up for another step. When he gets to the top, he knows his ladder perfectly, its weak points and its strong. It would be idle to attempt to deceive him. The new Secretary of the Navy, on the other hand, brings to his task marked ability and a national reputation, but—a more or less complete ignorance of the details of the complex organization placed in his charge. That changes in naval methods were so slight during the recent administration may be explained by the natural assumption that the many and brief-termed Secretaries were reluctant to go ahead until more thoroughly acquainted with

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the various sides of each proposed measure. They might, quite naturally, have feared the ultimate consequences of deciding some apparently trivial question—so delicate and so tradition-bound is the naval organism. It is safe to say that nothing is more essential to the Navy's welfare than a more permanent tenure of office on the part of the distinguished and capable gentlemen called to administer its affairs. Continuity in office for several years can alone give a Secretary that intimate knowledge and firm grasp without which he may feel indisposed to take the initiative in radical departures.

For the reasons just given, a rearrangement of the Navy Department, strongly urged by many on grounds which this article cannot discuss with propriety, did not come about. Let us now pass from Washington to the other naval establishments on shore.

The fleet is dependent upon the navy-yards for its repairs, much of its equipment and practically all of its supplies. That the navy-yards fall short of their possible maximum in economy has frequently been alleged and never seriously denied. With the excellence of their product, speaking in general terms, there has been no general dissatisfaction. It has happened, of course, on occasion that certain work has not been done as well as was expected, but the instances are too rare to furnish just cause of sweeping condemnation. It may rightly be assumed that, in the main, the navy-yards have done well that which they have been called upon to do. To the charge of want of economy they must, however, plead "guilty with extenuating circumstances." Industrially, they stand at a hopeless disadvantage when compared with private establishments, for they operate on a rigid statutory eight-hour basis and their employees, after one year's service, are granted fifteen days' leave per annum on full pay. All of these, without exception, enjoy seven holidays with pay during the year; receive full wages for working but half of each Saturday in July, August and September and liberal compensation for time lost on account of injuries. These items would constitute in themselves a determining handicap even if the yards were reduced in number to the few actually required by the naval service. It is estimated that leaves and holidays at the Washington navy-yard increase the expense of running its great gun-shops by nearly $400,000 each year, and also that these leaves involve a general addition of fifteen per cent. to the cost of navy work. Part of

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this increase is direct and calculable—the remainder is indirect and therefore can only be estimated. It occurs through the necessity of constantly shifting new men to work in hand or else of stopping the work until the old mechanic can return and take it up again, with the delays incident to lack of continuity, etc. Whether the estimate of fifteen per cent. be correct or too great is of little consequence as far as this writing is concerned. It is enough to point out causes, which are completely inescapable, of the enhanced price of navy-yard output. The Navy altogether disburses one and a half millions of dollars annually for leaves and holidays from which it derives absolutely no benefit. How unjust, therefore, to blame it for the compulsory extravagance due to this item, which alone would bar it from competition with outside concerns.

Referring to the state of affairs, say, in 1907, this is the picture of our principal navy-yards which presented itself to any visitor possessed of an inquiring mind. At each he would have found five essentially complete manufacturing establishments within the one enclosure. In some cases, any one of these establishments could perform all the work of its class required by the entire yard. The visitor would have been rather sure to see five machine-shops, five carpenter-shops, five pattern-shops, five blacksmith-shops, five paint-shops, etc., each with its complement of artisans and its staff of foremen, quartermen and leading-men. He might have found only three foundries, or elctro-plating shops, etc., but he would not have been surprised by the full number of five.

How did this multiplication of facilities arise? The answer is very simple—through the unforeseen expansion of "the bureau system." Originally devised to conduct the business of the Navy Department, every bureau, from small beginnings, gradually developed at each yard a more or less thoroughly equipped industrial plant, buying its own materials, hiring its own operatives and carrying on its own work by itself, for itself and without regard to its neighbors. Did it need a new machine tool, it bought that tool notwithstanding there may have been a dozen such tools lying idle in another bureau's shop across the navy-yard street. These separate and distinct bureau plants at a yard, with their offices, officers and attendant duties, known as "yard departments," were conducted by officers called the "Head of the De-

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partment of Ordnance, Yards and Docks, Equipment, Construction or Steam Engineering," as the case might be. While under the military control and subject to the orders of the officer in command of the yard ("the Commandant") these heads of departments were bureau men, selected as such and therefore, most naturally and inevitably, guided by a commendable loyalty to their chiefs in Washington. To expand their own boundaries, multiply their facilities on the ground that they must be ready to grapple with the sudden rush of work inevitable in times of emergency, and to widen the influence and scope of their particular bureau, was not only to be expected, but, in the lack of departmental disapproval, was absolutely praiseworthy. The growth of the bureau idea could easily have been predicted. It followed a law as unchangeable as human nature itself. Let us not condemn the individual for doing his best to perpetuate and enhance the system apparently acceptable to the Navy Department, however much we are tempted to regret the subordination of the Navy as a whole to the interests of its parts. We might even go so far as to say that, while each subdivision of the Navy was ably cared for, there was no person or office charged with the welfare of the entire service. Theoretically, the Secretary himself was so responsible, but practically his deficiency in that intimate acquaintance with its personnel, history and methods prevented his discharging his duty with prudent vigor.* Much as he would have liked to act, the Secretary did not feel sufficiently sure of himself and thus insensibly the power which he might have wielded was not exercised at all or it passed in a measure into the hands of the bureau chiefs. Between these appeared to exist a sort of "gentlemen's agreement." When they were not in accord, appeal was made to their common superior, to whom were also referred such questions as manifestly could not be dealt with by any one bureau chief. In fact, why, legally, should they trouble him except in extreme cases or where their interests conflicted? Does not a statute of the United States distinctly give their order the same weight and authority as that of the Secretary of the Navy? Law and custom were therefore entirely on their side. They could go as far as they thought expedient,

* It is, by the way, in this absence of some authority to speak for the whole Navy that the advocates of a General Staff found their soundest argument when some years ago they urged the creation by law of such a body.

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provided they did not traverse his prestige. The result of this state of things was that at times a Secretary would feel as though practically side-tracked. Not through a desire to make a grand lama of him, but purely as the consequence of a steady, imperceptible drift, the Secretary became more and more of a figure-head and less the helmsman of the naval barque. On important subjects he could not be, and, in fact, he was not, ignored, and he could at any time assume control even of details had he so desired. No bureau chief sought designedly to lessen the Secretary's prerogative, but it was so much easier to decide questions assumed to be minor in the bureau than to disturb the Secretary. The latter again, as a rule, received only such professional advice as came from his bureau chiefs who had daily and hourly access to him. The naval service might be practically of one mind on some vital point and yet its voice never reach his ears, provided that voice found no echo in a departmental bureau. It was nobody's business to say to him: "Sir, the Navy thinks so and so. Personally, I do not think so, but it is my duty to inform you that such views are held with substantial unanimity." Since the Navy Regulations are very stringent on the subject of open utterances on current topics by naval officers, the existence of a strong service public opinion might not even be suspected by the Secretary. That recommendations by officers in their official communications would come under his eye might be expected by those who are unaware of the physical impossibility of his reading even the thousandth part of the daily mail addressed to him. Suggestions must be on some given point and not vaguely general. In other words, they must, in the vast majority of cases, enter the domain of some particular bureau. That being the case, the letter containing these would be automatically referred for action to that bureau where it would find a welcome or a pigeonhole. In either event the Secretary was none the wiser. It is, hence, no cause for amazement that this partition of his duties, sanctioned by long usage in the department itself, should have been carried to the navy-yards, there to achieve its perfect fruit. Thus in each navy-yard little *imperii in imperio* grew apace—for who was there to call a halt? If the Naval Constructor wanted to install an electroplating establishment, even though the Equipment Officer had in operation a well-appointed shop of that character, he obtained the consent of the Chief Constructor, bought the ap-

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paratus, and went ahead. Probably such matters were seldom presented to a Secretary before Mr. Newberry's time.

The vacancy created in the office of Assistant Secretary of the Navy by the resignation, in 1905, of that excellent, level-headed Vermont lawyer, Judge Darling, was filled by the appointment of Mr. Truman H. Newberry, of Detroit. Mr. Newberry had been an enthusiastic member of the Naval Militia of his State. During the Spanish-American war he held a commission as lieutenant in the Navy, serving as such with credit on board the auxiliary cruiser "Yosemite." These circumstances account for his interest in naval matters. In addition, he brought to his new position deep knowledge of mercantile affairs, wide practical experience as a successful manufacturer, sound judgment and fearlessness of responsibility. His immediate superiors, Mr. Bonaparte and Mr. Metcalf, placed reliance upon his capacity and gave him practically full charge of the navy-yards and their affairs. Their absences from Washington being neither infrequent nor brief, Mr. Newberry was often called upon to occupy the Secretary's chair and therein to decide important service questions. Three years and more he spent in the Navy Department studying its organization, learning the capacities and idiosyncrasies of the officers and others with whom he was brought in contact, diligently performing his duties and gradually acquiring a profound insight into naval administration and a wide acquaintance with naval personnel. In this school he was an apt scholar. What he did not learn was hardly worth the learning. His antecedents led him perforce into desiring to better the methods of carrying on the Navy's work which he quickly recognized as susceptible of marked improvement. Even then, however, he realized the wisdom of going slowly and of taking no step forward until assured that his advance was upon firm ground. In this necessity he experienced the disadvantage of being so situated as to lack, not the general view from the outside of things at the navy-yards, but the presentation of concrete facts from within upon which to base his action. Nor could he, without sacrificing his immediate responsibilities, undertake to discover the special weaknesses inherent in the system. Although secure in his own attitude towards desirable reforms and wholly ready to move to their introduction, he felt for a long time the need of definite information in enough instances to justify to himself the adoption

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of remedial measures. Occasionally, of course, the routine correspondence of his office would yield him the proof he required, but many things were happening daily, entirely right, according to law and the Navy Regulations, and, quite naturally, never brought to his attention, which, if submitted to him in their relation to other allied matters, would not have received his approbation. How, for example, was he to know that a bureau proposed to buy $50,000 worth of machinery for installation at a yard where a perfectly adequate plant of similar character already existed, unless some one acquainted with the case and having no interest other than a hope to save a needless expenditure of Government funds should lay the details before him? The bureau seeking to bring its facilities up to its desired maximum of capacity and controlling its own appropriations in which specific provision had been made for this new machinery would never think of turning that balance into the Treasury because another bureau was already equipped for doing all work of that character at the yard in question. The "bureau system" negatived any such view on the part of the former bureau; nor would the latter bureau feel it either discreet or courteous to interfere.

We thus find in the Department an Assistant Secretary, often and for rather prolonged periods actually the real chief, under the title of "Acting Secretary," to whom great powers had been granted, who, by training and temperament, was exceptionally fitted to enforce more economical methods. Is it a cause for surprise that such an energetic official should seek and obtain a means of breaking through the charmed circle of bureaus and get from an outside source the specific statements and recommendations of which he stood in need and which he was prepared to utilize as he deemed best and most expedient? It must not be forgotten, as already stated, that to all intents and purposes Mr. Newberry was, by his chief's command, in particular charge of our navy-yards, and that whatever he did in connection with them, even as Assistant Secretary, was by virtue of the authority so freely conceded to him.

If at this point another figure enters upon the scene and speaks in the first person, it is not to magnify his own share, but to describe, with loyal gratitude to his superior officer for the chance of "doing some good for the republic," the steps he was permitted and encouraged to take in furtherance of Mr. New-

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berry's ideas. The writer knows, better than any other person, how impossible it would have been for him to move at all had he not been assured at all times of Mr. Newberry's earnest wish to receive any statement or suggestion which could assist in effecting reforms at our navy-yards. The writer begs that this qualification be understood at every succeeding point of the narrative even when, for brevity's sake, the *ego* is unaccompanied by the phrase "at the Secretary's or Mr. Newberry's desire."

My first move in this matter, after assuming command of the New York navy-yard on the 1st of June, 1907, was to expedite the inspection of supplies delivered by contractors. To this end I directed that the officers assigned to this work should regard it as paramount to all other duty and should within twenty-four hours of delivery inspect all articles whose quality and quantity could be determined by mere examination, accepting or rejecting them *immediately*. Cases involving chemical or physical test were to be put at once in the hands of the Navy's accredited experts and pushed with all speed. Daily reports of every operation were required to be handed in to me. These were carefully and promptly scrutinized. No excuse was ever tolerated for delay in these inspections. Later on changes were introduced in the methods of inspection and in the records of the disposition made of deliveries which still further abbreviated the time between their receipt at the General Store and the payment of the bill. With the suggestion of these changes I was intimately connected, but they required and they secured the Secretary's approval. At the Navy Department the present chief of the bureau of Supplies and Accounts, Paymaster-General E. B. Rogers, U.S.N., not only added his influence in simplifying our procedure, but he obtained permission to eliminate several time-consuming and wholly unnecessary pieces of red tape in connection with public bills. The routine by which supplies are obtained at a yard remains unchanged in essentials. The office requiring the goods makes request on the General Storekeeper, who frames the requisition, a document which explains the necessity and gives the quantities and descriptions of the various articles desired. The requisition goes to the bureau chief, whose appropriation is to bear the charge, is approved by him and sent to the Paymaster-General, who directs how and where the purchase shall be made. The articles are then bought by advertisement or through sealed pro-

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posal or, in an emergency, by a purchasing officer (Navy Pay Officer) near the yard concerned. The General Storekeeper, after delivery of the article, prepares the public bill with all its certificates as to appropriation, mode of purchase, quality and quantity, inspection, etc. Formerly, this paper went back over the old ground, was signed by the General Storekeeper, approved by the Commandant and the Paymaster-General, and returned to the Navy Pay Office, which demanded a receipt for the money in advance of the payment. In the mean time, notice of the indebtedness was given to the Treasury Department, which remitted the exact sum to the Navy Pay Office. What a roundabout way to pay for five dollars' worth of brooms! Nowadays the public bill goes direct from the General Storekeeper to the Navy Pay Office and the latter, out of a current fund to his credit in the Subtreasury, pays the amount of the bill at once in a Government check. Where contractors were made to wait three and four weeks for their just dues, they now receive their compensation with practically no delay whatever. It is not an uncommon occurrence for a firm to make delivery and within forty-eight hours obtain its money. No business house could possibly excel this record. The effect of the new departure is felt in countless ways. Manufacturers and dealers who once declined to deal with the Navy because of "red tape" and delay are at last only too anxious to secure so desirable a customer; the great concerns enter into the competition and offer their wares at the lowest possible price; interest on the money involved in the transaction for which of old a liberal allowance had to be made in fixing the rate no longer figures in the computation. Prompt inspection, prompt rejection and prompt payment combine to save the Navy a large sum annually with the obtaining of equally good if not better material. There are those who estimate these economies in hundreds of thousands of dollars.

CASPAR F. GOODRICH.

(To be Concluded.)

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THE DECADENCE OF FRANCE.

BY MRS. BELLAMY STORER.

"Thou hast forsaken Me. Thou hast gone backward."—Je.: 15, 6.

THE Constitution of the Republic of the United States rests firmly upon two pillars: Religion and Justice. It declares the existence of God and Law, and our whole Government is based upon it. Balzac said, many years ago, "Religion and Justice, those great pillars, *without which no social order can be upheld,* have grown weaker in France during our nineteenth century—which boasts so loudly of its 'progress' in every direction."

Since Balzac's time much water has run under the bridges of the Seine. The boasts have grown louder, the pillars weaker. I shall begin by describing what are to replace "Religion" and "Justice" in the radical socialist government. Religion is supplanted by the cult of the *"Déesse de la Raison"* and Justice gives place to a socialism which tends toward anarchy.

The history of the "neutral" school dates from the establishment of the *Teaching Power, "La ligue de l'enseignement."* The beginning of this great "reform" wore a liberal and conciliatory aspect. Men like Jules Ferry and Paul Bert were careful to assure the public that the movement was not directed against any religious belief whatever.

The "Ligue" has its humble origin even before 1870. It was founded by an Alsatian schoolmaster, Jean Macé, stimulated by the false but quickly adopted cry, "It was the German schoolmaster who won the battle of Sadowa." This phrase electrified France. For ten years and more, books, pamphlets, speeches in the Chambre and newspaper articles shrieked aloud, "It was the German schoolmaster who won the battle of Sadowa!" All this emotion crystallized itself into a popular conviction, that France could only rise from the ashes of a disastrous war by the

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multiplication of her public schools and by a new system of instruction.

The enterprise was *patriotic* in the beginning, and a recently conquered people took it up with ardor. How it was twisted and corrupted is subsequent history. "The Ligue de l'Enseignement" looms large to-day as the most deadly engine ever directed against Religion and one of the most hostile to all idea of real patriotism. Already in 1881, after the annual congress of the League, the declaration was made that "neutrality" must *dominate* both in politics and religion. From that moment the League entered into open war against Christianity. It made petitions to Senators and Deputies, it stirred up the country; it had a definite influence in the framing of those laws which introduced atheism into the schools.

Freemasonry joined it and became the most active power in France against religion. Nowhere else in the world is there such an organization as this "*Francmaçonnerie.*" The name misleads. The *Grand Orient* of France on September 1st, 1877, scratched from its constitution the ancient formula, "To the glory of the Great Architect of the Universe." Having banished God from their own society, the French "*Francmaçonnerie*" resolved to banish the idea of God from private life and from the hearts of the people of France.

This is no question of politics. It is a question of religion. The *Francmaçonnerie* and the *Ligue de l'Enseignement* go hand in hand.

They have seized upon the children of France; they have established the "neutral" school; their task is cut out and lies before them. It is the vivisection of the child's soul! In the first place, the name of "God" *must be banished*—he must not see or hear it. The child must be taught to worship Reason. If Religion is mentioned at all, it must be made to appear foolish, cruel and merciless; Reason alone is wise, humane and gentle!

Since 1906 old school-books have been revised. Every allusion to God has been obliterated. The child's mind must be *free*. When he grows older this open soil shall be sown with atheist seed. I say "atheist" because the teaching in the French "neutral" school is a teaching of active and aggressive atheism! To prove this, I have only to quote from the school-books themselves. The scope of this article does not admit of reference to more than a

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few of them. I shall choose two books which have been in use for many years in the public schools of France: a grammar and a book called "The Tour of France by Two Children," written by G. Bruno, Laureate of the Académie Française. I shall compare the earlier editions with the revised or "neutral" editions at present obligatory. The grammar is by Larive and Fleury (the second year). It is for children from eleven to fourteen years old. I find on the seventh page:

	REVISED EDITIONS (SINCE 1902).
"*IV. A proposition.*	"*IV. A proposition.*
"God is great.	"Paris is great.
"In *God is great*, *God* is the subject; *is* the verb; and *great* the attribute."	"In *Paris is great*, *Paris* is the subject; *is* the verb; and *great* the attribute."

ON PAGE 9.

"*Attribute with complement or complex attribute.*	"*Attribute with complement or complex attribute.*
"God is merciful to sinners."	"This plain is fertile with wheat."

Other changes meet one on almost every page. I quote a few more at random:

PAGE 23.

	REVISED.
"Happy are those who, having lived good lives, die in the Lord. Their good works follow them."	"Kind hearts are pleased in doing good works."

PAGE 54.

	REVISED.
"Why fear death if we have lived so good a life as not to dread the hereafter."	"Rome is a magnificent city. We admire its monuments."

PAGE 80.

	REVISED.
"Sailors in danger of drowning remember their God, to whom they offer up the most fervent prayers."	"Pupils should be grateful to their teachers, to whom they owe all their knowledge."

In another place I find "Abel was killed by Cain" changed into "Vercingetorix was conquered by Cæsar"!

Suffice it to say that wherever there is an allusion made to God, to prayer or to religion, and even where sentences from the Old Testament are quoted simply as history, the revising hand has effaced them all. Thus does the French child (even while

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studying the grammar of his language) find the "*Ligue de l'Enseignement*" teaching him irreligion.

I come to the second school-book, from which I wish to quote more fully. "The Tour of France by Two Children" was published soon after the Franco-Prussian war and has reached its 351st edition. The author says in the preface: "An acquaintance with one's own country is the foundation of all civic instruction. This story places before the child's eyes duties to be done and examples to be followed, for our two young heroes do not travel through France as simple pedestrians; they have serious duties to fulfil and risks to run. In following them along their road, our school-children are initiated little by little into practical life and gain *moral* as well as civic instruction."

In the revised editions of this book (published since 1904) information as to industrial and commercial economy and sciences remains unchanged. As to "moral instruction" (which used to mean something that admitted the existence of a Deity), I will point out some of the phrases which have been suppressed since five years ago. The story begins by the departure from Phalsbourg, in Lorraine, of two brothers whose father has just died. He told them to go to France and seek an uncle living in Marseilles. This happens in 1871, a few months after the close of the Franco-Prussian war.

The two boys, André aged fourteen and Julien seven, set forth upon their journey. Their clothes are in two bundles tied to sticks and carried over their shoulders. The boys arrive late on the first night at the house of an old friend of their father, Etienne, a maker of wooden shoes, who lives in a forest. The elder brother says, "Don't be afraid, my little Julien."

EDITIONS BEFORE 1905.	REVISED.
"'Oh, I am not afraid, André,' said Julien. 'We are doing our duty. The Lord will help us.'"	"'Oh, I am not afraid, André,' said Julien. 'We are doing our duty.'"

When they knock at the door of the shoemaker, André says, "Let us pray to God that we may be welcome."

EDITIONS BEFORE 1905.	REVISED.
"And the two children knocking timidly murmured in their hearts, 'Our Father who art in heaven, give us this day our daily bread.'"	"'We should not hesitate to ask a service of him.' And the two children knocked timidly at the door."

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The children are received most kindly. They announce their father's death. The following account is given of his last moments:

EDITIONS BEFORE 1905.	REVISED.
"'Love one another, my poor children, who shall henceforth be left alone! Live united to one another, *under the eye of God* as you stand before me now, hand in hand.' . . . Then his eyes turned to the open window through which he could see the deep blue sky: his dying gaze lighted up with a pure flame: he seemed now to wish to think of God alone. His soul lifted itself up to Him in one last prayer: confiding to His supreme protection the two orphans who knelt beside his bed."	"'Love one another, my poor children, who shall henceforth be left alone! Live united to one another, as you stand before me now, hand in hand.' . . . Then his eyes turned toward the open window through which he could see the deep blue sky. He seemed to be seeking with his gaze that distant frontier of his dear native land where he would never go, but where his sons, without protection henceforth, had promised that they would go."

Except for the horror of it, this would seem almost like a farce. The French Government will not allow a child in their "neutral" schools to read about a father on earth who believes in his Father in Heaven! The Teaching Power substitutes the death-bed of an atheist father, who dies without one thought of God!

Later on we find the children at nightfall under a big pine tree. The little boy is very tired.

EDITIONS BEFORE 1905.	REVISED.
"He passed his arm about his brother's neck, and his eyes were on the point of closing when a thought came to him. 'André,' he said, 'as I am going to sleep I must say my evening prayer.' 'Yes, dear Julien, we will say it together.' And the two orphans, lost amidst the solitude of the mountain, raised *their young hearts to heaven in* the same prayer."	"He passed his arm about his brother's neck; his tired eyes closed and soon he was asleep. His little head rested upon André's shoulder, who protected the child against the chilly night air and listened to his quiet breathing. This scarcely perceptible sound alone broke the silence which enveloped them, in the great solitude of the mountain, in which they were lost."

The French "neutral" child must not pray! That night, when the moon has risen, the two children reach the French frontier. Julien leaps with joy.

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EDITIONS BEFORE 1905.	REVISED.
"'How good God is!' he cried. 'And how beautiful is the mountain, now that it is lighted by the silvery rays of the moon.' . . . They lifted up their souls to heaven, and thanking God they murmured: 'Beloved France, we are thy sons, and we wish through our whole lives to be worthy of thee!'"	"'How beautiful is the mountain, now that it is lighted by the silvery rays of the moon.' . . . With their hearts stirred at the thought that they were at last upon the soil of France, that their father's wish was accomplished, that they had conquered by their own courage and perseverance the right to be called French, they joyfully embraced one another, crying, 'Beloved France! we are thy sons, and we wish through our whole lives to be worthy of thee!'"

Alas! poor children! There is no God in the French "neutral" schools! You must not thank a non-existent myth. The flower of faith shall not grow in the hotbed of atheism and anarchy!

The book then goes on, describing all the places through which the two children go, giving varied information as to the history, industries, etc., of the cities and provinces through which they pass. Of course the Teaching Power has carefully pruned even this array of "facts," that the children's eyes may continue to be blind to the existence of a Deity or of anything connected with Him. The whole book is most ingeniously expurgated. We find, when the boys approach Lyons:

EDITIONS BEFORE 1905.	REVISED.
"Before them rose the high hills, crowned by seventeen forts, and by the Church of Fourvières, which dominates the great city."	"Before them rose the high hills, crowned by the seventeen forts of Lyons."

The "church of Fourvières" no longer exists (and yet I saw it myself last year, the most conspicuous point in the landscape!). Further on, however, we find something almost incredible in its stupidity, for usually the "neutral" authorities are not *stupid.* The child must not only be prevented from reading about the church of Fourvières, he must not even look at the *picture* of a church!

In the revised edition, on page 265, a map of Champagne takes the place of the illustration in the former editions: the Cathedral of Rheims. There follows from this the suppression of an allusion to Joan of Arc and the coronation of Charles VII.

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In another place the old edition says, "Auch has a beautiful cathedral"; the revised says, "Auch has a thriving trade in wines!"

The "suppression" of men who worship God follows naturally upon the obliteration of places where God is worshipped.

The older editions, in speaking of the men of Burgundy, "renowned for their talent and for their great souls," mention first Saint Bernard, with an illustration representing the saint preaching the second crusade in 1146. There follows a portrait of Bossuet with a short biography. The "revision" cuts off Saint Bernard and Bossuet, putting a map of Burgundy in the place of the former illustrations and mentions only Vauban, Monge and Buffon, who are also spoken of in the previous editions. The men with "great souls" are gone!

I will finish what I have to say about this book by mentioning that in a notice of the great surgeon, Ambroise Paré (born near Laval about 1517, died in Paris, 1590), the earlier copies speak of a phrase of his which has kept his memory green even more than the fact that he was physician to Henri II, François II, Charles IX and Henri III. "One day he was congratulated upon the marvellous recovery of a patient. He made this simple answer, 'I dressed his wound; God cured him.' David d'Angers has engraved these words on the pedestal of the statue of Ambroise Paré." The revised edition has only, "The town of Laval has erected to him a statue in bronze by David d'Angers."

I must mention, before concluding this part of my subject, that a "neutral" edition of "Robinson Crusoe" has just been published by Flammarion. When I first heard of it I was incredulous, for I could hardly imagine how the adventures of Robinson Crusoe could be a book dangerous to the *unfaith* of a child, and that he must be shielded from harm by an expurgated edition. I find, upon examination, that the objectionable passages occur in the chapter where Robinson has a fever and calls upon heaven to help him, "Lord, help me, for my need is great!" He remembers that he has some tobacco in a trunk. He gets up and "doubtless guided by heaven," he finds in the trunk a Bible as well as the tobacco. He opens the Bible. His eyes fall upon these words, "Call upon Me in the day of thine affliction, and I shall deliver thee and thou shalt glorify Me." And the fever leaves him. In the revised edition all mention of the Bible is omitted and every-

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thing connected with it. The tobacco cures Robinson of his fever! Later on, in speaking of the education of the man "Friday," "teaching him to know the true God," is of course left out, for Robinson has no Bible and there is no God! French free-thought finds Daniel Defoe too orthodox and expurgates him!

I wish now to give some idea of the attitude of prominent political leaders and teachers in France with regard to Religion and Justice, that the reader may see clearly for himself the union of the two great powers, "*La Francmaçonnerie*" and "*La Ligue de l'Enseignement,*" and how the "neutral school" is the offspring of both. I shall limit myself to a few quotations from the writings and speeches of Viviani, Jaurès and Clémenceau, and to extracts from a very well-known book, "*La morale, par Jules Payot, Agrégé de Philosophie et Docteur ès Lettres.*"

"Out of their own mouths shall they be condemned."

On November 8th, 1906, Monsieur Viviani, the Minister of Labor, made a speech which was ordered by the Chamber of Deputies, in which it was delivered, to be printed and distributed through the 36,000 Communes of France. Space does not permit me to transcribe the whole speech; one quotation will, however, suffice:

"The French Revolution let loose all the audacity of men's minds and the ambition of their hearts. But this was not enough. The Revolution of 1848 gave men the suffrage and raised the working-man, bent by his task, and made the humblest and political equal of those in power. But this was not enough. The Third Republic summoned round her the children of the peasant and the working-man, and into their obscure minds, their unenlightened intelligences, she poured little by little the revolutionary germ of education. But this was not enough. With one consent with our fathers, our elders and our fellows, we have bound ourselves throughout the past to a work of anti-clericalism and irreligion. We have torn the minds of men from religious faith. The wretched workman, who, weary with the weight of his day's work, once bent his knee, we now have raised up. We have told him that behind the clouds were only chimeras. Together, and with a majestic gesture, we have put out in the heavens the lights that will never be lit again."

Monsieur Jaurès expresses himself as follows:

"The idea that must be safeguarded before everything is that there is no sacred truth; the idea that no power, no dogma, must limit the perpetual effort, the perpetual aspiration of the human race, humanity resembling a great commission of inquiry (!) with unlimited power; the idea that all truth which does not come from us is a lie; the idea

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that whilst we adhere faithfully to this truth the critical spirit must be ever awake and watchful. . . . If God Himself arose before the people in a palpable form, the first duty of man would be to refuse Him obedience, and to consider Him the equal of whoever holds Him in debate, not as the Master to whom he must submit."

He concludes his speech with the words, "In this consists the beauty of our neutral teaching!"

Monsieur Clémenceau is not a socialist, but is a convinced atheist. He revolts against the idea of a God. He substitutes man for the Deity. He says in his book, "*Le grand Pan*":

"Let us respond to the hard blows of fate with renewed effort; and having no need of the lying promises of religion, we will go into the Great Repose with resignation, content to have lived and proud of having at least attempted the sublime scaling of the heavens—'*La sublime escalade des cieux.*'"

Monsieur Clémenceau glorifies the "Titanesque atom" (man), who is destined to become the true God! We agree with Chesterton that the proper abiding-place of the man who believes only in himself is the lunatic asylum! "The fool hath said in his heart, There is no God." And these dangerous "fools" possess France politically to-day.

What is the good of talking about a *religious majority* in France, as people do, if that majority will not unite, sinking its petty political differences, at the next elections? Alas! one sees, when one lives in France, a fashionable class (the "smart set") given over to riotous living, "*On joue la comédie!*" One sees a multitude of well-meaning, almost indifferent optimists: "*cela s'arrangera!*" And one sees many good people who protest in words against all this iniquity. Judet, one of the most brilliant of French journalists, cries out in the "*Eclair*":

"In 1909, as we look back upon the ravages which have been committed by the unbridled dictatorship of Radicalism let loose in all the Government services, we can measure all the ground that we have lost since July 14th, 1898. The evil is so deep-seated that remedy can no longer be awaited from a mere return to the men whose fall was the signal for all these demagogic eccentricities. Whatever constitutional changes may be deemed imperative in order to establish the equilibrium of the country, our first concern, our first duty, is to expel from Parliament that Radicalism which has been able to govern only by giving hostages to Collectivism and by lowering France in the eyes of the world to such a degree that if the process were continued the day

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would inevitably arrive when she would be overwhelmed in a European cataclysm.

"If the next elections have any object or significance they must serve to complete the Radical defeat. Twelve years of a *régime* of this kind are enough to make one sick. Let Radicalism be abolished forever as it already is forever despised and discredited."

What will be *done* remains to be seen!

I have said that I shall quote from "*La Morale,*" by Jules Payot. This book stands higher than any other book of its kind in the estimation of the "*Ligue de l'Enseignement.*" I have heard it described as "a most beautiful book," "expressing the *highest* thought of modern France."

On the title-page Monsieur Payot says: "This work is written for the teachers of primary and secondary schools; for the normal schools which educate teachers, male and female; for students and for fathers of families." This, then, is the fountain-head of "neutral" education!

"*La Morale*" is dedicated to Monsieur Léon Bourgeois, "*l'apôtre de la solidarité.*" Here are a few choice samples of his teaching. He begins by glorifying the *Déesse de la Raison!* "The eternal laws of Reason are the conditions of our liberty. *To be free is to submit oneself solely to the eternal laws of Reason,* but we must also obey with docility her laws. To obey Reason, to obey her only—that means Liberty."

"To act well is to decide that the base of all things is Reason." To act ill is to decide the contrary. "Let us choose then the only probable belief: the only one that has Reason in its favor—viz., the belief in the reasonable action of Unknown Impersonal Force." As to a belief in God the Father Almighty, Creator of heaven and earth, M. Payot says: "We have ample proof that the *Unknowable* cares very little about us, and if we want more justice we must *work ourselves* to make it more complete." "The belief in a God who punishes the wicked has lulled to sleep the social conscience, and has contributed to make good men pusillanimous and apt to give a free rein to vice. What matter, since the exemplary punishment shall come. But alas! God does nothing except through us. He is always 'en voyage' when we ourselves are absent."

"To our reasonable conception of a fixed and eternal Universe is opposed the doctrine of creation made out of a chaos—which is

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contradicted by all scientific discoveries without exception, and which even would make one come to deny Reason itself. In admitting an arbitrary force as the source of all energy, one introduces an absurdity into the world which would lead us to consider Reason herself as a mere accident!" "This strange and absurd doctrine came from the Orient. The Orientals have never imagined an authority which submits to its own laws. Authority with them has always meant despotism. It is incarnated in an all-powerful man, who has power over the life and death of his subjects; a potentate placed in so lofty a situation cannot develop himself. Like a spoiled child, whose caprices everybody tries to indulge, he cannot learn the necessary lessons of reality. He lives in the unreal and the false; his mind can only be an incoherent mixture of truth and folly. He 'commands all save himself,' for such a man can scarcely possess the sentiment of justice. His subjects have no chance to avoid his capricious anger save by adroitness, servility, supplications and gifts; the dignity of a free man seems bravado to a despot. This personification of authority appears in the idea which the Jews made for themselves of a God.

"That such a conception was destructive of divine majesty and even of Reason herself the ignorant Christian multitudes cannot discern. Thus, in spite of an enlightened minority of scientific minds, we still see a whole mass of duller human intelligences admitting the supernatural, believing in miracles, and maintaining the efficacy of prayer as the means by which they may bribe and corrupt their Deity! The choice between these two conceptions of God divides humanity most widely to-day. On one side we find the philosophic, the scientific and persons of a lofty religious turn of mind; on the other side we find only the superstitious."

Monsieur Payot goes on to say that tolerance belongs to the first class of "minds" and persecution and cruelty to the second! To show his own "tolerance," he speaks of religious worship as follows: "It is in the church or the temple or the synagogue that unhappy persons may find for their own weakness some fraternal help. . . . Worship and prayer in common give to the faithful an expansion of joy, faith and contentment. The spoken word; the example; impressive ceremonies; music and song multiply the sensibilities, and a kind of 'contagion' of emotions is

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produced which is a stimulant for the mind. Now *we* are only beginning to organize *our* great anniversaries, *our great human festivals.*"

I pause here a moment to mention that the "*Lanterne*" (mouthpiece of the Radicals) said on Easter Sunday in April, 1908:

"Without waiting until the inevitable extinction of the Christian faith, why should we not at once begin to celebrate as great national and human festivals the rebirth of the sun after the 21st of December and the dawn of spring in the month of April, rather than appear to accommodate ourselves to superstitions which so many of us here in France despise and detest? The duty which grows more and more imperative upon us is to organize glorious popular demonstrations in honor of the great events of the solar year: true festivals of the human race, affirming the Love of Life."

Behold! their *Déesse de la Raison* shall be once more enthroned! Monsieur Payot continues with regard to religion, and its effect upon the human mind, as follows:

"Those persons who are weak of will; passionate and feeble, incoherent, anxious and sick souls (and there is a multitude of such) may find in religious belief, interpreted by a man who in their eyes is qualified to do it, a support, a certainty, a sense of security which eases their minds. In their wretched impotence to govern themselves, this outside help is a panacea which does not cure them, but which calms them, like a beneficent dose of opium." It is revolting to copy such words with which Monsieur Payot whistles down the wind all religion whatsoever, but I *must* give a clear idea of "*La Morale*" as it is taught in the *neutral schools.*

As to his before-mentioned comments on "Reason," Monsieur Payot remarks: "This Truth can be comprehended by a child" and adds: "It has seemed to us best to write first the *book for teachers.* I meditate over every problem with the teacher; arm him against protests; make him understand the living thought to-day of the freest and most loftily human modern minds with regard to this subject. This has been my aim!"

Monsieur Payot continues, on the subject of individual opinions, with regard to religion: "To-day we confess our absolute ignorance concerning any life of the soul after death." "Critics of the Scriptures; patient, well equipped, free to attack the sacred

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books of religion, have discovered that they could not have been written by a being supremely good or intelligent. They date from an epoch of ignorance and of feeble intellectual and moral development."

Speaking of the child, Monsieur Payot says: "We believe to-day that we owe to him a teaching that shall set him free, and that no person whatsoever has a right to influence his mind or his conscience in any way." "Each person is free to imagine for himself any survival he may hope for: but no one, in the name of such a hope, has any longer the right to impose his own fears or hopes upon any other human being." "We cannot impose as a truth what we ourselves know is not certain."

Put bluntly, all this talk means that no parent has any right to give, or have given, to his child any religious instruction whatsoever; that the atheist government and not the father has the right to educate the child. He shall be taught that there is no God. No one has a right to declare to him that *there is a God!*

What would the millions of devout parents in the United States say should such a Teaching Power as this seize upon the pupils in our public schools?

"*J'en appelle à toutes les mères!*" "I call upon you, mothers all, to look at this!" Thus did poor Marie Antoinette cry out in agony after she had seen her innocent little boy taught to blaspheme and to dance the *carmagnole* by her brutal gaolers in the *Conciergerie.* The successors to the Reign of Terror, the votaries of the *Déesse de la Raison,* are to-day teaching all the children of France to blaspheme; to declare complete independence of every restraint of mind or conscience; to dance the twentieth-century *carmagnole! J'en appelle à toutes les mères!*

I now come to the second pillar of the State. The *soidisant* French patriot and reformer has been hard at work to overthrow it also. I shall begin by describing what harm has been done to the French people, as a nation, by the doctrine of "*anti-militarisme.*"

It has produced a state of demoralization which threatens the whole army as a body. The "*esprit de corps*" has given place to discontent and a contempt for military service. A recent outrage which was published far and wide is an evidence of this. The soldiers in a French regiment had dishonored and trampled upon their own flag—the very last ditch of military degradation.

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Please observe, also, that this demoralization in the French army is the work of no less a personage than Monsieur Briand himself. He is the most conspicuous champion of revolt against military discipline.

Another great danger to the army has been deliberately introduced into it by the French authorities. Before 1906 persons who are called in French "*les condamnés de droit commun*" (men who have undergone sentence and imprisonment for minor crimes and misdemeanors) were sent to Africa to serve there in the battalions of light infantry. They are now put into regiments *in France*. I quote the "*Figaro*" of November 17th, 1909:

"Since 1906 our army receives each year an addition of from eight to ten thousand persons more or less tainted morally; the number this year is more than eleven thousand! Among the conscripts of the last contingent one finds: robbers, vagabonds, cheats, men condemned for assaults, for stabbing or striking blows, and for resisting authority.

"What a baneful influence must they not exert over their associates! How can one be astonished at seeing to-day so many crimes committed in the army when one knows that men are put into it who are unworthy to wear the uniform? Not only do such creatures contaminate their associates by their example and their conversation; for in the life led in common they cannot fail to produce a deplorable effect upon weak and ignorant minds; but they themselves are the most redoubtable adversaries of discipline and active agents of desertion. In regard of this point of view, let us not forget that last January 12,338 deserters were registered, and that with each year the number increases."

Such is the condition at present of the French army. It contains, *in France,* at the present moment 13,631 soldiers (the normal effective force of an army corps in time of peace) who, before entering the army, have passed through prison. They are disseminated broadcast. The children of respectable parents are exposed in each "*chambrée,*" in each "*peloton,*" to such vile associates as these. The newspapers are full of protests. I read in one of them this comment: "It is not at a time when the '*morale*' of our army is threatened by the most pernicious doctrines that we can, without peril, allow such elements of corruption to penetrate into our garrisons."

I pass from the army in France, and its corps of convicted criminals, to the law courts themselves, and I find an appalling statistic as to those criminals who go scot free because uncaught.

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I quote (from a recent number of "*Gil Blas*") an article headed "*Effroyable Statistique,*" which is as follows:

"The Minister of Justice has just sent to the President of the Republic the annual report of the courts of law. This document goes back to 1906, for it takes the Judiciary Department three years to substantiate its statistics. This report is curious reading and anything but reassuring as to the public safety. We see, in fact, that three hundred and twenty thousand four hundred and seventy-two prosecutions for penal offences have been '*classés,*' which means abandoned without result. From among these cases, one hundred and three thousand two hundred and thirty three have come to nothing because the criminals could not be found.

"Do you take to heart this fact, reader? It means that a hundred thousand rascals at least escape each year from our bloodhounds of the law and from the rigors of our Penal Code! One hundred thousand assassins, burglars, '*satyrs*' and '*apaches,*' counterfeiters, thieves, train-robbers, etc., are scattered every year throughout the whole of France to the undoing of honest folk, who nevertheless have paid a very high price for protection!"

I read the other day one of the letters signed "Junius" (a regular contributor to the "*Echo de Paris*") which is so interesting, as an example of the lack of administrative justice in France, that I give a translation of it. It is a touching little story told simply.

"I was walking in the neighborhood of a small town and came to a farmhouse built on the edge of the road. The farmer's wife, whom I have known a long time, was just going in as I came by. She carried a very heavy basket heaped with plums. They were not very choice plums. They grow on a tree with brown leaves, whose inventor, with a laudable ambition for glory and for the perpetuation of his name, has called 'Prunus Pissardi.' 'How is this, Mariette?' I cried, looking into the basket. 'You have picked both the ripe and the green ones!' Mariette put down her load and stood with arms akimbo. 'I should rather think I have, sir! Every scrap of fruit we possess, plums or pears or apples or chestnuts, is stolen by wayside tramps! Only yesterday five of them were shaking that tree: three young men and two girls. I told them to go away. They only abused me outrageously. I called my husband; they threatened him. He went to the guard, and the guard said the law would do nothing. The law mocks at us who work hard for a living, and it acquits all the vagabonds and good-for-nothings.' Please notice that the

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woman who said all this to me—and thousands of other honest country folk would say the same—is a brave and hard-working creature who has toiled for thirty years, saved and suffered, in order to own a house, a wheat-field and the orchard where that plum tree grows. She and her husband represent that element of the population which is the most healthy and sound and necessary of all; the most worthy to be protected by the laws and by the magistrates who apply the laws.

"Now this woman knows from a hundred instances—and the lawbreakers also knew—that authority has grown lax; that the duty of keeping order is forgotten, and that honest people are abandoned as a prey to malefactors."

The Radical-Socialist government of France is a political menace to all civilized nations. Since the "*entente cordiale*" with England, see what leaps and bounds a reckless and irresponsible socialism has taken there. The *Déesse de la Raison* is dancing the twentieth-century *carmagnole* in England! Jaurès in France looks on, rubbing his hands with glee and saying in effect: "This is our work, but it goes faster in England than we ourselves have dared as yet to let it go in France!"

The "Times" of September 13th, 1909, gives the following description of his state of mind:

"The Socialist leader, M. Jaurès, who is devoting two or three columns a day in his organ, the '*Humanité*,' to a discussion of the political evolution of the working-classes in England, interprets in significant fashion the causes and effects of the policy of the Government in England. M. Jaurès endeavors to explain the circumstances that have enabled the Government to initiate legislation which, in his opinion, 'will mark an epoch in the political and social history of England,' and to present a Budget which he describes as 'unquestionably the most startling which has been submitted to any European Parliament for several generations.' M. Jaurès ascribes this development in the first place to the irresistible pressure of the '*popular movement*' in England, and, secondly, to the whole-heartedness with which Liberalism as represented by the Government has promoted the growth of conditions that it conceived itself powerless to retard. . . . M. Jaurès implies that the Government has imparted purpose and direction to the agitation of the masses, which for their part 'have transformed British public life by *compelling English Radicalism to absorb Socialist ideas*. Never has the tide risen so high in that land of caution, circumspection and traditions."

The Socialist propaganda spreads everywhere. The anarchist

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Ferrer was sent from France (where he had spent ten years) into Spain to establish there "neutral" schools exactly like the French ones, and to publish a newspaper proclaiming the doctrines of French Radical-Socialism. He echoed their cry of "*Liberté, egalité, et fraternité!*" The Barcelona outrages followed. When Ferrer was shot, *Liberté* shrieked in France. Members of the French Ministry shouted aloud: "He was *our man;* we taught him; we sent him to found schools in Spain like our schools. He echoed *our* doctrines—and he has been shot! He is a martyr!"

In every other country, too, the bad seed is sown, although the harvests in England and in Spain have ripened faster. In Belgium, too, the evil is spreading. It grows more rapidly in the provinces where French is the language spoken. The Flemish-speaking Belgians are safer from corrupt influences.

Germany is threatened here and there, but under a strong rule and a devout Christian ruler the German people as a whole still worship the Lord and respect the Law. The Christian inhabitants (both Catholic and Protestant) of German Alsace and Lorraine may thank God to-day that they no longer belong to France!

Let this be said to the *shame* of the men who lead France to-day; the men who with their own hands have torn to pieces her great traditions and ground under their iron heels her past glories! A German invasion did not and would not accomplish such wanton destruction as this, which Frenchmen have themselves wrought in France!

She is indeed fallen. Nothing can lift her up again to her place among the great world powers, except a united effort to throw off the bondage of an odious tyranny. Any French patriot worthy of the name who denies her decadence is one of the blind who *will not* see. He is an ostrich who thrusts his head obstinately into the sand.

We shall see the salvation of France only on the day when we may behold her snatched from degradation and once more upheld by the two great pillars—Religion and Justice.

MARIA LONGWORTH STORER.

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FAIR REGULATION OF RAILROADS.

BY SAMUEL O. DUNN.

THAT the railroads of the United States always, in future, ought to be subjected to public control every one now agrees. As to what form this control ought to take widely varying opinions are held which are reflected in inconsistent policies of the State and national Governments. In some States the railroads almost run the Governments, although this is not true in as many States as it was a few years ago. Elsewhere the States almost run the railroads. A good many people, who hold otherwise very different views, concur in fearing that a satisfactory policy of regulation will not be worked out, but that Government regulation will lead to Government ownership. The experience of Europe is cited. Germany, Belgium, Italy, Austria, Switzerland, have gone from Government regulation to Government ownership. France, after long owning and operating one small road and exercising strict supervision over six large lines, recently decided to take over one of these big lines, the Western. But European experience, while instructive, is not conclusive. Special conditions in every case have caused public regulation to be succeeded there by public ownership. Our political and industrial history and institutions are different from those of European countries, and in this matter, as in some others, we may perhaps find it more expedient to be warned by their mistakes than to follow their example.

The problem of how the railroads shall be regulated probably will be advanced a long way toward solution when the question of who is to regulate them is better settled. This question, raised recently by a multitude of laws, is pending in novel forms in Federal courts all over the country. Whether exclusive Federal control be desirable or not, we cannot expect to get it, in view

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of past decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States, without amendment of the Federal Constitution. We may reasonably hope, however, that the courts will hold that where State laws or regulations necessarily interfere with or nullify a Federal law or regulation the former must yield. Congress then, by setting a good example and by firmly limiting the activities of State legislatures and commissions, can foster a consistent railroad policy that will benefit both the carriers and the public. How badly such action by Congress is needed is perhaps best indicated by the fact that within the five years, 1904-08, inclusive, the State legislatures enacted no less than 800 provisions to regulate common carriers.

There is another phase of this question of who shall regulate the railroads. Shall it be done by the lawmakers directly or through commissions? The nation has an Interstate Commerce Commission whose powers were greatly enlarged by the Hepburn act of 1906. Eight States within the past six years have created new railroad commissions. Seven within the same time have increased the powers of their old commissions. Thirty-nine States now have railroad commissions. We have wisely concluded that so difficult and technical a subject should be dealt with by a small body of experts in practically continuous session. Unfortunately, the State legislatures, while abstractly indorsing this theory, cannot always be got to act conformably with it. During recent years, in all parts of the country, they have constantly interfered with work that they had previously delegated to the commissions. An extreme example was in Wisconsin, where, after the State railroad commission, one of the ablest bodies of the kind in the world, had decided after an exhaustive investigation that two and one-half cents was a reasonable passenger fare, the legislature, without any investigation at all and over the outspoken protests of the commissioners, passed a two-cent-fare law. If railroad commissions are to command the respect of railroads, shippers and public, if they are to perform their duties fairly, intelligently and beneficially, they and their work must be left as free from legislative interference as are the courts and their work.

The appointive commissions are usually far superior to the elective. Of the fifteen States that within six years have created new or remodelled their old commissions those of ten are ap-

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pointed by the Governor and of five are elective. In one of these States, whose commission is appointive, the Governor named as commissioners a leading lawyer, a distinguished professor of economics in the State University and an expert statistician. In another of these States the people elected as two of the three commissioners a cowboy who had "killed his man" and who since his election has been arrested and fined for flourishing his gun, and a man who a short time before had bought a gold brick for $10,000. In another State the people elected recently to the railroad commission a man whose only claim on their suffrages was that while a railroad brakeman he had lost both legs in a railroad accident. Cowboys, purchasers of gold bricks, and legless brakemen are not the kind of men that will solve the problem of fair regulation of railroads.

Regulation should relate, as already it generally does relate, to three phases of the railroad business: (1) operation; (2) rates; (3) finances.

Railroad managers have sometimes protested against interference by public authorities with the physical operation of the roads. Regulation of physical operation is perhaps more defensible than any other form. The first duty of common carriers is to provide ample and safe facilities of transportation. Where it is obviously to their selfish interest to do this they may be trusted to do it voluntarily. Regulations to punish people for not doing what they already are straining every nerve to do are futile or harmful. In this class belong the so-called "reciprocal demurrage" rules that were adopted in 1907 by the authorities of ten States. Business had outgrown facilities of transportation, despite herculean efforts by railroad managements. These ten States in their wisdom fixed penalties to be imposed on the roads for not furnishing the needed cars, which did not exist but which the railroads had ordered. By the time the cars were built traffic had slumped enormously, and from January to August, 1908, from 200,000 to 400,000 idle freight-cars stood on side-tracks. No wise legislature or commission required shippers to provide freight to load these idle cars.

Where it is not obviously to the interest of carriers to serve the public well, or they do not do so, it is a proper function of public regulation to compel them to do so. Public regulation has no more important duty than that of making railroad operation

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safer. In the year ended June 30th, 1907—the latest year for which complete statistics of the Interstate Commerce Commission had been issued when this article was written—11,839 persons were killed and 111,016 were injured on American railroads. Only a small part of these casualties took place in train accidents. Of the deaths, 1,270, and of the injuries, 15,463, were due to collisions and derailments. Five thousand six hundred and ten persons, or forty-eight per cent. of the total number killed, met their deaths while unlawfully trespassing upon railroad property. The perilous grade crossing claimed 934 lives. A large part of the remaining accidents was due to violation of operating rules by employees. In order to get safe operation of railroads three classes must be subjected to stricter public regulation—railroad managements, railroad employees and the public. The Railroad Commission of Indiana has grasped this important fact and begun an intelligent and thorough campaign to reduce accidents. In its quarterly accident bulletins the Indiana Commission distinguishes between accidents for which the railroads are responsible and accidents for which they are not to blame. To reduce accidents due to employees it has asked the State legislature to make violation of the rules of the companies punishable by fine and imprisonment whether casualties result or not. This is the law in England. To reduce accidents due to trespassing upon railroad property it has asked the press of the State to co-operate with it in pointing out the danger of such trespassing and has urged the legislature to enact a law for the abatement of this evil. If it be more important that railroad operation and travel in the United States shall be made safe than that transportation shall be made cheap, the Railroad Commission of Indiana is a pioneer in the most important work that such a body can do.

There are other features of railroad operation that public regulation should improve for the convenience of the public. The late passenger train is a chronic nuisance. Everybody has been exasperated by it. In the stress of competition for business railroads frame passenger-train schedules that it is often impossible for their trains to "make"; and travellers are annoyed by missing connections and business and social engagements and being kept waiting at stations. The New York Public Service Commission, Second District, in 1907 found a passenger train on a certain road that did not reach destination on time a single day

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in July or August. It found a train on another road that was not on time from October 20th to December 1st. On another road it found a train that was late every day in November. On still another road it found a train that was late every day in December. It took steps to stop that kind of thing. If a railroad cannot make its trains conform to the published time-tables it ought to be compelled to make the time-cards conform to the running time of the trains.

Public regulation of the physical properties and of the operation of railroads must be done with a reasonable regard for their earning power. The public cannot compel the roads to spend large sums to furnish safe and adequate transportation without letting them earn the money necessary to defray the expense involved and to pay a reasonable profit besides. It must choose whether it will have convenience, safe and adequate facilities of transportation or the cheapest possible transportation. It will cost immense sums of money to put all the railroads of this country in the shape that such railroads as the Pennsylvania, the Lake Shore and parts of the Chicago and Northwestern are in. They cannot sell the securities to raise this needed money unless it shall be reasonably certain that they will be allowed to charge rates that will enable them to earn enough to pay interest and substantial dividends on fair capitalizations.

The phase of railroad regulation that has received most attention in this country is regulation of rates. One principle has been very firmly established by legislation, decisions of the courts and public sentiment—that railroads, being quasi-public corporations, cannot legally or morally discriminate unfairly in their rates between individuals or localities. The establishment of this principle, after years of flagrant violation of it, has abolished the rebate and is abolishing the free pass. No other principle of rate regulation can be said to have been established and accepted as just and salutary by both railroads and regulating authorities.

The methods of rate regulation vary from State to State and even in the same State. (1) The legislatures sometimes fix schedules of maximum rates for all the traffic in the State. (2) In some States the railroad commissions initiate, on their own motion, schedules of maximum rates for part or all of the traffic. (3) The Interstate Commerce Commission and the commissions of a number of States can only fix rates after somebody has

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complained and shown on formal hearing that existing rates are unreasonable. (4) In some States the commissions can only investigate rates and recommend changes. This substantially was true until two years ago of the Interstate Commerce Commission.

The third method seems to work best. Entire schedules made by legislatures or commissions repeatedly have been held unconstitutional by the Federal courts because the regulating authorities, in their zeal to get something done, did not ascertain by patient, thorough and intelligent investigations what would be just as between travellers, shippers and carriers, and in consequence fixed rates so low that, taken as a whole, they were confiscatory. In other cases legislatures and commissions have made schedules which were high enough perhaps to be not confiscatory, but were so low as to discourage railroad development and therefore to be inexpedient. From this cause railroad development is to-day practically at a standstill in Texas, which has yet over fifty counties without a railroad. The State railroad commission has hurt the State as much as it has the carriers.

The initiation of rates should be left in the hands of the numerous traffic managers of the railroads, who are in constant conference with shippers, who usually have good reason for doing all they can to promote industrial development and who have better means of informing themselves about the conditions and needs of the territory their lines serve than any legislature or commission. Power to change specific rates that are unjust or excessive should be given to commissions of experts to protect the public against the occasional unwisdom or unfairness of traffic managers.

The basis on which rates ought to be regulated has been much discussed recently. The Interstate Commerce Commission has asked Congress for authority and funds to make a valuation of the physical properties of railroads as a basis for fixing reasonable rates. In Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, South Dakota, Washington, Texas and other States valuations have been made or are in progress. These valuations are usually estimates of the cost of reproduction of the physical properties in their present condition. It is assumed that the carrier should be permitted to earn only a "reasonable rate of interest" on the value of its physical property. One objection to valuations as bases for rate regulation is that they may be unfairly low. In Texas the State

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Tax Board in 1907 placed a valuation upon the railroads of the State for taxation of $419,381,404. In the same year the railroad commission placed a valuation upon them as a basis for rate regulation of only $200,222,306, and argued that roads whose net earnings were eight to twelve per cent. of its valuations were prosperous. It would have been just as fair for it to have valued the properties at half the amount that it did and then argued that these roads were earning sixteen to twenty-four per cent.

Even if a general valuation of railroads based upon their cost of reproduction should be fairly made its use as a basis for adjusting rates over a wide area might work great hardships. A road running through a mountainous country, such as the Denver and Rio Grande, might cost more per mile to reproduce, is proportionately more expensive to operate, and has less traffic per mile than a road such as the Union Pacific which runs mainly through easy and productive country. If a physical valuation of the Union Pacific should convince the Interstate Commerce Commission that it is making too much money and its rates should be reduced, the Denver and Rio Grande would have to reduce its rates to compete with the Union Pacific even though its business already was not profitable. Similar examples could be cited from every section of the country.

A fair valuation of railroads would be based, not merely upon the cost of reproducing their physical properties, but also upon the density of their traffic, the relative costs of operating them, their strategic location—upon everything that legitimately tends to make them profitable and enters into their value as going concerns. The proposition to base railroad rates upon any theory of the cost of producing transportation is looked upon with disfavor by most economists and railroad executives, but rates based upon a valuation in which factors such as those just mentioned were considered much more equitable than rates based merely upon the value of the individual locomotives, cars, ties and fish-plates constituting the railroad's physical plant.

Whether fixed by traffic managers or regulating authorities, rates should be based mainly, not upon the value of the railroad, but upon the value of the service that the railroad renders. They should be "based upon what the traffic will bear"—and, also, they should not be based upon what the traffic will not bear. Dry-goods will bear a higher rate than coal; therefore, coal

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should have a lower rate. Coal moving twenty miles will bear a higher rate per ton mile than coal moving one hundred miles; therefore, the rate per ton mile should not be as high for the longer as for the shorter distance. There is not a road in the country that is not making a good profit handling some kinds of business, while on another kind of business its rate is barely high enough to be remunerative and barely low enough to move the traffic; therefore, a horizontal reduction in rates is almost certain to make the rates on some business unremunerative and a horizontal advance to make it impossible for some goods to be shipped. The value of commodities, the distances they are to be hauled, the competition of carriers and markets and many other factors should be considered. Unfortunately there is hardly a State railroad commission that is not frequently or habitually violating every correct principle of rate-making. The results produced by the distance tariffs, the schedules discriminating in favor of local as against national interests and other obstacles that are being put in the way of the free movement of commerce will cause more and more trouble and loss to the railroads and to industry in general unless the powers of the commissions are narrowed or their mental vision is widened.

The amount of profit that railroads ought to be allowed to earn should be treated solely as a matter of expediency. The public will harm itself by exercising its legal right to reduce rates to the point where they are barely not confiscatory. Railroads compete in the money-market with manufacturing, mercantile and other concerns for capital. Capital is invested where, allowance being made for difference of risk, it can get the largest return. If railroads are restricted by reduction in rates, as some propose, to the current rate of interest on the bare value of their physical properties, while investors can get an average of from fifteen to twenty per cent. from investment in manufactures, is it probable that capital will be permanently forthcoming for the adequate maintenance and development of the country's rail transportation system?

The argument most commonly made for governmental regulation of the financial affairs of American railroads is that they are over-capitalized and charge excessive rates to pay dividends on their watered stocks. Over $3,000,000,000 of railroad stocks and bonds are owned by the railroads of the United States themselves.

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Allowing for this duplication, their average net capitalization in 1907 was less than $58,000 per mile. The average capitalization of the railroads of Canada is almost $56,000 per mile and of the railroads of Mexico is almost $58,000 per mile. The cost of the German railroads has been $105,000 per mile. The capitalization of the railroads of France is $134,000 per mile; of those of the United Kingdom, $272,000 per mile. There are some roads in this country that are over-capitalized and others that are under-capitalized, but a fair valuation would probably show that as a whole the railroads of the United States are worth more than they are capitalized for. It may be said, however, that regulation is needed at least to keep the roads that are over-capitalized from charging exorbitant rates. But the over-capitalized roads cannot charge excessive rates because they have to meet the rates of the roads that are fairly capitalized. A water-logged road like the Chicago Great Western has got to make the same rates as such competitors as the Chicago and Northwestern, the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy and the Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul or quit business. "The capitalization of the railroads, I think, cuts no figure in this rate question," Martin A. Knapp, chairman of the Interstate Commerce Commission, once said. The true justification of public regulation of railroad finances, if there be any good reason for it, is that it is needed to insure good transportation service and to protect investors.

There is always danger that an over-capitalized road, in order to keep up the price of its securities, will pay out in interest and dividends what ought to be spent on maintenance of the property.

The Interstate Commerce Commission, acting with authority given by the Hepburn act, required the railroads to begin the use, on July 1st, 1907, of a uniform system of accounting. In several States the same accounting system has been prescribed. The system may be defective in details, but it is a move in the right direction.

In order to prevent railroads from being loaded with debt, plunged into bankruptcy, and thereby rendered incapable of performing properly their duty to the public, public regulation should, perhaps, be exercised in future over their issues of bonds and other evidences of indebtedness. It ought to be seen that every bond issued has back of it a good deal more than an equivalent in tangible value. It ought, if practicable, to be seen that every

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dollar raised by the sale of securities goes into the development and improvement of the property, and not into some pocket where it has no business. The looting of railroads should be guarded against and punished like the looting of banks. Whether any steps, except those necessary to accomplish these purposes, should be taken is extremely doubtful. A law of Massachusetts provided for fifteen years that securities might not be issued except at their market price; what the market price was, to be determined by the State railroad commission. Texas prohibits the issuance by any railroad of stocks and bonds having a par value more than fifty per cent. in excess of the value of its property as fixed by the State railroad commission; and the commission has fixed the "true value" of Texas roads at only forty-eight per cent. of their assessment by the State Tax Board, at fifty per cent. of their capitalization and at little less than the amount of their outstanding bonds, thereby making the issue of new securities practically impossible. Railroad officers of the highest reputation contend that the administration of these laws has hindered railroad development in both Massachusetts and Texas; and the legislature of Massachusetts in 1908 amended the law in that State so as to provide that the stockholders of transportation companies may fix the price at which stock shall be issued, and that the railroad commission may refuse its approval only if in its opinion "the price fixed by the stockholders is so low as to be inconsistent with the public interest." Congress and the legislatures of the States should not act until they are sure the laws regulating security issues that they shall pass will not so hamper legitimate business as to do more harm than good.

"Virtue," said Aristotle, "is a middle state between two faulty states, in the way of excess on one side and defect on the other; and it is so, moreover, because the faulty states on one side fall short of and those on the other side exceed what is right." To make Government regulation of railroads fair and successful, the faulty state on the side of the reactionary that would fall short of, and the faulty state on the side of the radical that would exceed, what is right, must equally be avoided. No right of the public should be left unprotected. At the same time no restriction or burden that the protection of the rights of the public does not clearly require should be placed upon the railroad.

SAMUEL O. DUNN.

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THE EVOLUTION OF STYLE IN MODERN ARCHITECTURE.*

BY THOMAS HASTINGS.

THE architectural style or language of any time in history is, and always has been, a universal language common to all peoples. In solving problems of modern life, the essential is not so much to be national or American, as it is to be modern and of our own period.

The question of supreme interest is, What influence life in its different phases has upon architectural style. Style in architecture is that method of expression in the art which has varied in different periods, almost simultaneously throughout the civilized world, without reference to the different countries, beyond slight differences of national character mostly influenced by climate and temperament. Surely modern architecture should not be the deplorable creation of the would-be style-inventor, or that of the illogical architect, living in one age and choosing a style from another!

The important and indisputable fact is not generally realized that from prehistoric times until now each age has built in one, and only one, style. Since the mound-builders and cave-dwellers, no people, until modern times, ever attempted to adapt a style of a past epoch to the solution of a modern problem; in such attempts is the root of all modern evils. In each successive style there has always been a distinctive spirit of contemporaneous life from which its root drew nourishment. But in our time, contrary to all historic precedents, there is a confusing selection from the past of every variety of style. Why should we not be modern and have one characteristic style expressing the spirit of our own

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life? History and the law of development alike demand that we build as we live.

One might consider the history and development of costumes to illustrate the principle involved. In our dress to-day we are modern, but sufficiently related to the past; which we realize when we look upon the photographs of our ancestors of only a generation ago. We would not think of dressing as they did, or of wearing a Gothic robe or a Roman toga, but as individual as we might want to be we would still be inclined, with good taste, to dress according to the dictates of the day.

The irrational idiosyncrasy of modern times is the assumption that each kind of problem demands a particular style of architecture. Through prejudice, this assumption has become so fixed that it is common to assume that if building a church or a university we must make it Gothic; if a theatre, we must make it Renaissance. One man wants an Elizabethan house, another wants his house early Italian. With this state of things, it would seem as though the serious study of character were no longer necessary. Expression in architecture, forsooth, is only a question of selecting the right style!

The two parties with which we must contend are, on the one hand, those who would break with the past, and on the other those who would select from the past according to their own fancy.

Style in its growth has always been governed by the universal law of development. If from the early times, when painting, sculpture and architecture were so closely combined, we trace their progress through their gradual development and consequent differentiation, we can but be impressed by the way in which one style has been evolved from another. This evolution has always kept pace with the progress of the political, religious and economic spirit of each successive age. It has manifested itself *unconsciously* in the architect's designs, under the imperatives of new practical problems and of new requirements and conditions imposed upon him. This continuity in the history of architecture is universal. As in nature, the types and species of life have kept pace with the successive modifications of lands and seas and other physical conditions imposed upon them, so has architectural style in its growth and development until now kept pace with the successive modifications of civilization. For the principles of de-

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velopment should be as dominant in art as they are in nature. The laws of natural selection and of the survival of the fittest have shaped the history of architectural style just as truly as they have the different successive forms of life. Hence the necessity that we keep and cultivate the historic spirit, and that we respect our historic position and relations, and that we more and more realize in our designs the fresh demands of our time, more important even than the demands of our environment.

What determining change have we had in the spirit and methods of life since the revival of learning and the Reformation to justify us in abandoning the Renaissance or in reviving mediæval art, Romanesque, Gothic, Byzantine or any other style? Only the most radical changes in the history of civilization, such as, for example, the dawn of the Christian era and of the Reformation, and the revival of learning, have brought with them correspondingly radical changes in architectural style.

Were it necessary, we could trace two distinctly parallel lines—one the history of civilization, the other the history of style in art. In each case we should find a gradual development, a quick succession of events, a revival, perhaps almost a revolution, and a consequent reaction, always together, like cause and effect, showing that architecture and life must correspond. In order to build a living architecture, we must build as we live.

Compare the Roman orders with the Greek and with previous work. When Rome was at its zenith in civilization, the life of the people demanded of the architect that he should not only build temples, theatres and tombs, but baths, palaces, basilicas, triumphal arches, commemorative pillars, aqueducts and bridges. As each of these new problems came to the architect, it was simply a new demand from the new life of the people; a new work to be done. When the Roman architect was given such varied work to do, there was no reason for his casting aside all precedent. While original in conception, he was called upon to meet these exigencies only with modifications of the old forms. These modifications very gradually gave us Roman architecture. The Roman orders distinctly show themselves to be a growth from the Greek orders, but the variations were such as were necessary in order that the orders might be used with more freedom in a wider range of problems. These orders were to be brought in contact with wall or arch, or to be superimposed upon one another, as in a

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Roman amphitheatre. The Roman recognition of the arch as a rational and beautiful form of construction, and the necessity for the more intricate and elaborate floor plan, were among the causes which developed the style of the Greeks into what is now recognized as Roman architecture.

We could multiply illustrations without limit. The battlements and machicolated cornices of the Romanesque, the thick walls and the small windows placed high above the floor, tell us of an age when every man's house was indeed his castle, his fortress and stronghold. The style was then an expression of that feverish and morbid aspiration peculiar to mediæval life. The results are great, but they are the outcome of a disordered social status not like our own, and such a status could in no wise be satisfied with the simple classic forms of modern times—the architrave and the column.

Compare a workman of to-day building a Gothic church, slavishly following his detail drawings, with a workman of the fourteenth century doing such detail work as was directed by the architect, but with as much interest, freedom and devotion in making a small capital as the architect had in the entire structure; perhaps doing penance for his sins, he praises God with every chisel stroke; his life interest is in that small capital; for him work is worship; and his life is one continuous psalm of praise. The details of the capital, while beautiful, may be grotesque, but there is honest life in them. To imitate such a capital to-day, without that life, would be affectation. Now a Gothic church is built by men whose one interest is to increase their wages and diminish their working-hours. The best Gothic work has been done and cannot be repeated. When attempted it will always lack that kind of mediæval spirit of devotion which is the life of mediæval architecture.

We might enumerate such illustrations indefinitely. If one age looks at things differently from another age, it must express things differently. With the revival of learning, with the new conceptions of philosophy and religion, with the great discoveries and inventions, with the altered political systems, with the fall of the Eastern Empire, with the birth of modern science and literature, and with other manifold changes all over Europe, came the dawn of the modern world; and with this modern world there was evolved what we should now recognize as the modern archi-

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tecture, the Renaissance which pervaded all the arts and which has since engrossed the thought and labor of the first masters in art. This Renaissance is a distinctive style in itself, which, with natural variations of character, has been evolving for almost four hundred years.

So great were the changes in thought and life during the Renaissance period that the forms of architecture which had prevailed for a thousand years were inadequate to the needs of the new civilization, to its demands for greater refinement of thought, for larger truthfulness to nature, for less mystery in forms of expression and for greater convenience in practical living. Out of these necessities of the times the Renaissance style was evolved —taking about three generations to make the transition—and around no other style have been accumulated such vast stores of knowledge and experience, under the lead of the great masters of Europe. Therefore, whatever we now build, whether church or dwelling, the law of historic development requires that it be Renaissance, and if we encourage the true principles of composition it will *involuntarily* be a modern Renaissance.

Imagine the anachronism of trying to satisfy our comparatively realistic tastes with Gothic architectural sculpture or painting made by modern artists! Never until the present generation have architects presumed to choose from the past any style, in the hope to do as well as was done in the time to which that style belonged. In other times they would not even restore or add to a historic building in the style in which it was first conceived. It is interesting to notice how the architect was even able to complete a tower or add an arcade or extend a building, following the general lines of the original composition, without following its style, so that almost every historic building within its own walls tells the story of its long life. How much more interesting are these results alike to the historian and the artist!

In every case where the mediæval style has been attempted in modern times the result has shown a want of life and spirit simply because it was an anachronism. The result has always been dull, lifeless and uninteresting. It is without sympathy with the present or a germ of hope for the future—only the skeleton of what once was. We should study and develop the Renaissance, and adapt it to our modern conditions and wants, so that future generations can see that it has truly interpreted our life. We

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can interest those who come after us only as we thus accept our true historic position and develop what has come to us. Without this we shall be only copyists, or be making poor adaptations of what was never really ours.

The time must come, and, I believe, in the near future, when architects of necessity will be educated in one style, and that will be the style of their own time. They will be so familiar with what will have become a settled conviction, and so loyal to it, that the entire question of style, which at present seems to be determined by fashion, fancy or ignorance, will be kept subservient to the great principles of composition, which are now more or less smothered in the general confusion.

Whoever demands of an architect a style not in keeping with the spirit of his time is responsible for retarding the normal progress of the art. We must have a language if we would talk. If there be no common language for a people there can be no communication of ideas, either architectural or literary. I believe that we shall one day rejoice in the dawn of a modern Renaissance, and as always has been the case, we shall be guided by the fundamental principles of the classic. It will be a modern Renaissance because it will be characterized by the conditions of modern life. It will be the work of the Renaissance architect solving new problems, adapting his art to an honest and natural treatment of new materials and conditions. Will he not also be unconsciously influenced by the twentieth-century spirit of economy and by the application of his art to all modern industries and speculations?

Only when we come to recognize our true historic position and the principles of continuity in history, when we allow the spirit of our life to be the spirit of our style, recognizing first of all that form and all design are the natural and legitimate outcome of the nature or purpose of the object to be made—only then can we hope to find a real style everywhere asserting itself. Then we shall see that consistency of style which has existed in all times until the present generation; then shall we find it in every performance of man's ingenuity, in the work of the artist or the artisan, from the smallest and most insignificant jewel or book-cover to the noblest monument of human invention or creation, from the most ordinary kitchen utensil to the richest and most costly furniture or decoration that adorns our dwelling.

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We must all work and wait patiently for the day to come when we shall work in unison with our time. Our Renaissance must not be merely archæological—the literal following of certain periods of the style. To build a French Louis XII of Francis I or Louis XIV house, or to make an Italian *cinquecento* design, is indisputably not modern architecture. No architect, until our times, slavishly followed the characteristics of any particular period, but he used all that he could get from what preceded him, solving such new problems as were the imperatives of his position.

What did a man like Pierre Lescot, the architect of the Henry II Court of the Louvre, endeavor to do? It would have been impossible for him actually to define the style of his own period. That is for us, his successors, to do. For him the question was how to meet the new demands of contemporaneous life. He studied all that he could find in classic and Renaissance precedents applicable to his problem. He composed, never copying, and always with that artistic sense and the sense of the fitness of things, which were capable of realizing what would be harmonious in his work. In the same way all architects, at all times, contributed to a contemporaneous architecture, invariably with modifications to meet new conditions. This must be done with a scholarly appreciation of that harmonious result which comes only from a thorough education. So with freedom of the imagination and unity of design an architecture is secured expressive of its time.

How is it with us in this country? Not only do many architects slavishly follow the character of some selected period, but they also deliberately take entire *motifs* of composition from other times and other places to patch and apply them to our new conditions and new life. Every man's conscience must speak for itself as to whether such plagiarism is right; but while the moral aspect of this question has very little to do with art, yet intellectually such imitative work, though seemingly successful, positively stifles originality, imagination and every effort to advance in the right direction.

The way is now prepared for us to endeavor to indicate what are some of the principal causes of the modern confusion in style. With us Americans, an excessive anxiety to the original is one of the causes of no end of evil. The imagination should be kept

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under control by given principles. We must have ability to discern what is good among our own creations and courage to reject what is bad. Originality is a spontaneous effort to do work in the simplest and most natural way. The conditions are never twice alike; each case is new. We must begin our study with the floor plan, and then interpret that floor plan in the elevation, using forms, details and sometimes motives, with natural variations and improvements on what has gone before. The true artist leaves his temperament and individuality to take care of themselves.

Some say that if this is all that we are doing there is nothing new in art; but if we compose in the right way, there can be nothing that is not new. Surely you would not condemn nature for not being original because there is a certain similarity between the claw of a bird and the foot of a dog, or between the wing of a bird and the fin of a fish. The *ensemble* of each creature is the natural result of successive stages of life, with variations of the different parts according to the principles of evolution. There are countless structural correspondencies in the skeletons of organic life, but these show the wonderful unity of the universe; and yet, notwithstanding this unity, nature is flooded with an infinite variety of forms and species of life.

We must logically interpret the practical conditions before us, no matter what they are. No work to be done is ever so arbitrary in its practical demands but that the art is elastic and broad enough to give these demands thorough satisfaction in more than a score of different ways. If only the artist will accept such practical imperatives as are reasonable, if only he will welcome them, one and all, as friendly opportunities for loyal and honest expression in his architecture, he will find that these very conditions will do more than all else besides for his real progress and for the development of contemporaneous art in composition.

The architects in the early history of our country were distinctly modern and closely related in their work to their contemporaries in Europe. They seem not only to have inherited traditions, but to have religiously adhered to them. I believe that it is because of this that the genuine and naïve character of their work, which was of its period, still has a charm for us which cannot be imitated. McComb, Bullfinch, Thornton, Letrobe, L'Enfant, Andrew Hamilton, Strickland and Walters were sufficiently American and distinctly modern, working in the right

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direction. Upjohn and Renwick, alas! men of talent, were misled by the confusion of their times—the beginning of this modern chaos, the so-called Victorian-Gothic period.

Gifted as Richardson was, and great as his personality was, his work is always easily distinguished, because of its excellent quality, from the so-called Romanesque of his followers. But I fear the good he did was largely undone because of the bad influence of his work upon his profession—stumpy columns, squat arches and rounded corners, without Richardson, form a disease from which we are only just recovering. McComb and Bullfinch would probably have frowned upon Hunt for attempting to graft the transitional Loire architecture of the fifteenth century upon American soil, and I believe all will agree that the principal good he accomplished was due to the great distinction of his art, and the moral character of the man himself, rather than to the general influence and direction of his work.

McKim's name at this time we mention almost with bated breath. Whether he was right or wrong, whether we agree with him or not, in wanting to revive the art of Bramante, St. Galo and Peruzzi in the nineteenth century, he had perhaps more of the true sense of beauty than any of his predecessors. His was the art of the man who loved the doing of it without thought of credit, and this makes itself felt in every example of his work, which was always refined, personal and with a distinctly more classic tendency in his most recent work.

We have seen that the life of an epoch makes its impress upon its architecture. It is equally true that the architecture of a people helps to form and model its character. If there is beauty in the plans of our cities, and in the buildings which form our public squares and highways, its good influence will make itself felt upon every passer-by. Beauty in our buildings is an open book of involuntary education and refinement, and it uplifts and ennobles human character; it is a song and a sermon without words. It inculcates in a people a true sense of dignity, a sense of reverence and a respect for tradition, and it makes an atmosphere in its environment which breeds the proper kind of contentment—that kind of contentment which stimulates ambition.

But, above all, it cultivates the sense of beauty itself, which is as important a factor in a well-formed character as is the sense of humor and almost as necessary as the sense of honor. It is,

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I believe, a law of the universe that the forms of life which are fittest to survive, and the very universe itself, are beautiful in form and color. Natural selection is beautifully expressed, ugliness and deformity are synonymous, and so, in the economy of life, what would survive must be beautifully expressed.

If a story is to live it must be told with art, and a message of truth will carry further and be of more lasting service if beautifully expressed. There is literary style in every good book, however personal or simply written. Beauty of design and line in construction builds well, and with greater economy and endurance than construction which is mere engineering. The qualitative side first, then the quantitative side of construction should be considered. The practical and the artistic are inseparable. There is beauty in nature because all nature is a practical problem well solved. The truly educated architect will never sacrifice the practical side of his problem. The great economic as well as architectural calamities have been performed by so-called practical men with an experience mostly bad and with no education.

Construction should first be designed, then calculated. Know where you want to go before seeking a way to go there. The separation of the architect and the modern engineer has been brought about principally because of the innovation of railroads and steel construction.

The engineer and architect should work hand in hand at the very inception of the structural design. The architect should not be called in, as is generally the case, to decorate badly designed construction with useless ornament. We should meet these new conditions of life in construction, with art in the very skeleton of the construction itself, and even so, with this unfortunate separation of engineering and architecture, something should be done to bring them closer together, and they should join forces at the very beginning of every important undertaking; otherwise we shall suffer for it even as we have already, and it is only by being forewarned that we can forestall the consequences.

When we think of what the past ages have done for us, should we not be more considerate of those that are yet to come? A great tide of historic information has constantly flowed through the channel of monuments erected by successive civilizations, and we can almost live in the past through its monuments.

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The recently discovered buried cities of Assyria give us a vivid idea of a civilization lost to history. The Pyramid of Cheops and the Temples of Karnak and Luxor tell us more of that ingenuity which we cannot fathom, and the grandeur of the life and history of the Egyptian people, than the scattered and withered documents or fragments of inscriptions that have chanced to survive the crumbling influences of time. The Parthenon and the Erechtheum bespeak the intellectual refinement of the Greeks as much as their epic poems or their philosophy. The triumphal arches, the aqueducts, the Pantheon and the Basilicas of Rome tell us more of the great constructive genius of the early Republic and the Empire of the Cæsars than the fragmentary and contradictory annals of wars and political intrigues.

The unsurpassed and inspiring beauty of the Gothic cathedrals which bewilders us, and the cloisters which enchant us, impress on our minds a living picture of the feverish and morbid aspiration of mediæval times—a civilization which must have had mingled with its mysticism an intellectual and spiritual grandeur which the so-called Dark Ages of the historian have failed adequately to record, and here, in and around Washington and in our own country in general, even amid the all-absorbing work of constructing a new government, our people found time to speak to us to-day in the silent language of their simple architecture, of the temperament and character of our forefathers.

Consider the time in which we are now living. Will our monuments adequately record the splendid achievements of our contemporaneous life,—the spirit of modern justice and liberty,—the progress of modern science,—the genius of modern invention and discovery,—the elevated character of our institutions? Will disorder and confusion in our architecture express the intelligence of this twentieth century? Would that those in authority might learn a lesson from the past, and awaken in their wisdom to build our national monuments more worthy of the dignity of this great nation, and more expressive of this wonderful contemporaneous life!

THOMAS HASTINGS.

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NITROGEN STARVATION.

BY CHARLES E. WOODRUFF.

UNDER the leadership of Professor R. H. Chittenden of Yale University and several other physiologists here and in Europe, a new and dangerously false dietetic theory has received undue publicity among laymen. It is asserted that we eat much more of the nitrogen foods than we should, and that health and efficiency are enhanced by cutting down the supplies about fifty per cent., more or less, whereas the evidence seems to prove that most of the people of the world do not get enough.

It is only within comparatively recent years that the vital importance of nitrogen has been recognized. The older chemists and physiologists looked upon organic substances as carbon compounds, such as sugar, starch, cellulose and alcohol; but, as a matter of fact, living material is essentially a mixture of very complex nitrogen compounds, while the carbon substances are manufactured by living cells. It is highly essential, then, in all vital phenomena, to remember that living matter is an unstable compound built of nitrogen and needing nitrogen for its continued existence.

All the other elements entering into the composition of our bodies are essential to life, no doubt, for experiments show that we can starve a lower organism by depriving it of any one of them; yet the main element is nitrogen, for without it all growth ceases. Without nitrogen there is no life. The lowest organism can utilize nitrates, or ammonia in solution, or the mere oxides of nitrogen, or even nitrogen itself; but, in the higher animals, the only substances to which we should give the name of food are the proteids, or complex nitrogen compounds, derived from other organisms. The carbon foods—sugars, starches, fats and alcohols—really deserve the name of fuels; for, though they do

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become parts of some of our tissues and enter into the very substance of the cells, their main purpose, as far as now known, is to burn up to release their stored energy.

The amount of carbon fuel-food necessary for health is so dependent upon the work done that discussion of it is almost futile. A steamship at her dock requires but little fuel for heating and to run her necessary machinery, but when at full speed her consumption is enormous. Man follows the same rule, for he is a heat-engine too. The ship is built of many things, but the basis of all is the element iron, and for growth and repair iron is to the ship what nitrogen is to man. It is quite evident that a ship which makes many trips at high speed needs more repairs than a "sedentary" one at her dock, and in the same way a man who works much requires more than he who works little. It is not possible, then, to state exactly how much nitrogen any particular man should have, nor can we give a standard to which all men should conform, whether sedentary professors or active coolies. Indeed, there is some evidence that proteids can be as safely used for fuel in man as they are in the carnivorous animals, for some healthy races are largely though not entirely carnivorous.

There is a wide-spread opinion that the excess of protein puts some kind of a curious "load" on the liver and kidneys, though no one has ever been able to prove it. Physicians "relieve the load" by a milk diet containing large quantities of nitrogen in the casein. In addition, it was once thought that over-indulgence led to gout and rheumatism, but it has long been known that those diseases are most prevalent among the underfed poor. As a matter of fact the world over, the higher classes are fed with an abundance of nitrogen and are the healthiest, longest lived, most energetic, best developed and freest from disease. In India there is still an opinion that abscess of the liver is due to overeating, but it is now known to be due to infections, and that the well-fed nitrogen-eaters are less liable to it than the starved.

What makes the matter still more unaccountable is the overwhelming evidence of wide-spread semi-starvation among the lower classes in every part of the world. The explanation of this well-known fact is not so well known, but it is quite easy, nevertheless. As all biologists now acknowledge, there are more individuals born in every species than can possibly survive, and

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there is a struggle for existence which is, in some part at least, a struggle for subsistence. There is not enough nitrogen to go round, and those who get the most grow best and survive over the less well fed. This law being universal, applies to man as well as to bacteria. Not only are periodical famines reported from many parts of the world, but even among the best-fed nations there are starving classes, as our settlement-workers know too well.

Now, it has long been noted that nitrogen, being the essential for which the demand is so great, has always had a high price. Carbon foods cost a few cents a pound, but dried protein costs a dollar or more, and foods rich in nitrogen are the most expensive — eggs, milk and meat. An insufficiency of nitrogen, therefore, is the main defect in all Old World dietaries, at least where there is overcrowding of the population, and observations show that the higher classes the world over do consume far more nitrogen than the lower. In Germany there is a chronic meat famine, and throughout the northern half of Continental Europe horse meat is a staple—even dogs are slaughtered under official inspection in Germany. Nevertheless, in some places the peasant rarely if ever is able to buy meat of any kind. In the crowded tropics nitrogen is still more rare, and there is a veritable nitrogen thirst among all the rice-fed natives. A feast or *fiesta* is not of dainties, as with us, but is a solid repast of meat. How serious, then, would be the error of accepting low nitrogen dietaries as the normal, when nitrogen underfeeding is the cause of the lack of growth and the susceptibility to disease so characteristic of the lower classes. Moreover, through the more abundant nitrogen diet of America, the children of undersized immigrants develop, as a rule, into fine specimens, and are able to do far more work than their cousins who have stayed at home. Over and over again have the official experts of our agricultural experiment stations made feeding experiments with domestic animals and shown that, by liberal nitrogen feeding, animals grow better and in every way are superior to those with a diet excessive in everything except nitrogen. Botanists long ago gave the name of "nitrogen starvation" to the condition of plants in which this first essential of life was deficient, and no better term can be applied to the underfed peasantry of Europe.

In England and other countries it has been found that de-

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fective development and what is called degeneration are largely due to defective nitrogen nutriment supplied to the young both before and after birth. For many years observant English schoolmasters have noted the irritability of underfed schoolboys and the deplorable condition of the girls, whose food is mostly the carbon compounds. When nitrogen is increased—meat twice a day—the children become normal. The same observation has been made with other carnivorous animals—for we are carnivorous at least in infancy—and they, too, show grave inanition when the nitrogen is reduced.

The traditional military policy of the United States Government has been to increase the liberality of the soldier's food. We have much more to accomplish, for we are still behind European nations. A comparison of our maximum ration with the maximum war rations in Europe some years ago revealed the astonishing fact that ours is one of the worst in the world. Dependence upon it always results in emaciation and weakness, so that restaurants in and around armies and garrisons are absolutely essential and every soldier spends a large amount of his pay for food, and, significantly enough, his favorite tidbit is ham and eggs—nitrogen. These facts were denied by a military sanitarian at the time the publication was made, and he stated that our ration was the best in the world and not susceptible of much improvement. Yet Congress has been repeatedly compelled to increase the soldier's ration. In addition, Representative Littlefield made an effort to obtain fifty cents monthly for each soldier to buy extras, and I have personally long advocated such an allowance.

Though the European war rations are very large—the husky Russian soldier receiving two pounds of bread a day in comparison to our one—the peace ration, particularly in Germany. is small, because the soldier is expected to get money and food from home. It is part of every one's tax to serve in the army, and, later, to feed his sons who are serving there. It is calculated that the 600,000 German soldiers spend for food over and above their ration the enormous sum of one hundred million dollars or even two hundred million, if we count in the extras of the sons of well-to-do parents. The Danish soldier in the West Indies was once held up as a proof that low diet will suffice, for he was given but four ounces of meat; yet it was not mentioned

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that he got fifteen cents a day to buy more. The English were compelled to give the soldier more meat in India than in England.

In view of these facts, it was with amazement and dismay that the writer learned that a squad of soldiers had been starved by Professor Chittenden to prove that the ration was really overfeeding them! The matter was so important that the men were traced to get the real facts, which every military sanitarian knows were not at all what Professor Chittenden thought they were. At the end of the experiment the men were photographed, weighed, tested and declared to be in far better condition than at the beginning of the experiment—a statement so much at variance with the military experience of the world as to be incomprehensible. The reports received in 1905 and 1908 cleared up the matter at once.

One said "that he felt badly throughout the test, and that his health and strength improved immediately on stopping it," and that he did not continue the low diet. The second lost twelve pounds in the test and was always hungry, but he regained his normal as soon as he returned to normal diet. The third thought he received some benefit, but he returned to normal diet and normal weight. The fourth said that his nervous system was permanently damaged; he continued the diet three months, but stopped it because he became weak, nervous and dizzy and had frontal headaches. He lost weight, but upon return to normal diet he gained weight and lost his abnormal symptoms. The fifth did not find the diet beneficial in any way, and it was unsatisfying, though he was not damaged as far as he knew. The sixth and seventh merely stated that they did not continue the diet and were in excellent health. The eighth was so impressed with the harmfulness of the diet that he believed he would have died had he continued it. The ninth continued the diet and was in good condition. Surely this is a record to deter other experimenters in the line of starving human beings.

All this is bad enough for the greatly reduced diet which it is supposed the men ate, but it becomes far worse when it is realized that it was the result of a better diet than reported. Hungry men will eat, and persistent rumors stated that the men had secretly partaken of "square meals" now and then. These rumors proved to be correct. One of the men made the following statement:

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"In giving a true and concise statement of the matter, I do so, believing it will not compromise me now. From the time the experiment first began up to the termination of the same, I gradually lost weight and strength, believing the same due to insufficient amount of food, especially meats. At the time of the test, I was six feet in height, weighed 160 pounds, and was in good health. During the test I lost twenty pounds in weight. Apparently some of the smaller men did not fare as badly as I, but all expressed a dissatisfaction with the whole affair.

"I was not sick during the test and have not been since to speak of, but I felt like an old man at the end of the experiment. It seems that I felt weak and had no energy or ambition for anything. However, I have experienced no bad effects since undergoing the test.

"As to the matter of eating outside, I do not believe that there was more than one man taking the test who did not eat as well as drink on the outside whenever he had an opportunity. Private ——, I believe, adhered strictly to the test in every respect. Being an old man, he did not avail himself of the privilege of going out in the evening, but at the end he looked much older than before and expressed his dissatisfaction. As for myself, I will say that I ate on the outside occasionally and believe, had I not done so, I would have starved.

"During the test we were given gymnastic exercises, which were highly appreciated by the men; but toward the end the men became so weak that the exercises early exhausted them, and sometimes many of them were hardly able to reach their quarters.

"It is my belief that the reports prepared and the books written regarding this test and its apparent success are greatly exaggerated, and I believe all of the men on the test would so testify.

"As a reward for our services on the test, we were sent for duty to the World's Fair at St. Louis with the United States Army Medical Department exhibit, and as soon as we were returned to full diet every one seemed to gain rapidly in strength and weight. Within three months after the test I went from 140 pounds in weight to 170 pounds."

Though most of the men did eat secret extra meals now and then, it was not sufficient to make up a normal diet. The deficiency was extremely harmful, so that, if they had taken as small an amount as was reported, the result would have been disastrous. The reason for the concealment was the fact that the men had been disobeying orders and were afraid of the consequences of discovery; and the weakness and distress had been concealed with all the rest. As a scientific experiment, the whole thing falls to the ground.

The result being the opposite of what was reported, it is quite evident that three of the most remarkable blunders possible in a scientific investigation were committed. In the first place, the "probable error" due to unknown factors and unavoidable faults

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of observation was not estimated. The possibility of extra sources of food should have been fully stated and emphasized, for failure to enlarge upon it has given the impression that the men lived on far less food than was actually the case. No investigation ever gives exact results, but the probable error is invariably calculated.

The second blunder is of far more importance, and that is the neglect of the "factor of safety." It has long been known that by natural selection in times of stress only those organisms survive which are much stronger than necessary in ordinary times. Hence each organ is built on good engineering principles with a factor of safety varying from six to twenty, or that many times stronger than need be for ordinary stresses. This is now known to be the reason why we must eat just a little more than we expend, to have a surplus to store up in a physiological bank account for times of infection when there is a "run" on our resources. The man with no surplus goes under like a bank with no reserve. The normal man always has a good layer of fat under the skin, and the very fact that he does not go on increasing in weight like a prize pig is proof that the appetite and other conditions prevent undue excess. No animals store up tremendous quantities unless it is for some special use. To be sure, there are types developed by man for the purpose of manufacturing fat, but these animals would promptly perish unless man preserved them. Experiments with cavalry horses have shown that when satiety comes they drop back to the ration, refusing any surplus offered. Obesity is a disease and is not due to diet primarily. Hence we find that, with plenty of food available, we are not able to take more than a small surplus for future emergencies, and unless we do take it we are unable to weather the storms of life.

In the cure of tuberculosis, for instance, the main factor is the outdoor life, but the next important factor is nitrogen nutrition —not stuffing the patient, but giving him a generous diet of milk, eggs and meat to the limit of his digestive powers. The results are marvellous and leave no reasonable doubt that the main reason why the tissues lost their resisting powers was the fact that they had previously suffered from deprivation of nitrogen. Sometimes other diseases leave the cells impoverished so that tubercle bacilli find a favorable soil, and sometimes the patient, though fat from consumption of carbon fuel-food, has

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neglected the real nitrogen foods. Alcoholics often succumb for this reason, for it has recently been shown that neither excessive indulgence nor total abstinence of themselves are factors of importance. Sometimes chronic indigestion prevents the proper supply to the cells; and, finally, what is far more to the point, recent study of various forms of protein shows that some, though digested by one species of animal, are incapable of digestion by another, and that more or less of the protein we ourselves eat is useless as food. It is highly essential, then, that we eat more than enough to allow for indigestible and unassimilable portions —if we are to keep ourselves in a condition whereby our cells may destroy the living tubercle bacilli we are daily liable to take into our bodies. The factor of safety must be large or we perish. The theory of the low-diet faddists, that tubercular susceptibility is due to overeating, has nothing to support it, is opposed to all we know of the disease and is most dangerous to public health. It is not a disease of the well fed.

Even in the lower animals we find evidence of importance, for it has long been known in zoological gardens that, as a rule, with some exceptions, due possibly to bad ventilation, vegetable feeders are twelvefold more susceptible to tuberculosis than the meat-eaters. Moreover, foxes and rats on a carnivorous diet are nearly immune, but more than twice as susceptible on a vegetable diet, though fat and apparently thriving. Likewise milk-fed calves rarely contract tuberculosis, even when fed from tuberculous cows. It is also found that the carnivorous New World monkeys rarely contract the disease which is common among the vegetarian Old World species, and the latter are preserved in greater numbers by adding nitrogen to the diet, even if it be given as a sloppy beef tea.

Beri-beri is another microbic disease which does not attack those with a big nitrogen bank account. Well-fed Europeans in the Orient never contract beri-beri—practically speaking. In northern latitudes, relapsing fever and typhus rarely attack those fed upon an abundance of nitrogen. Like beri-beri, they are found among the underfed. Similarly, cholera, the plague and other infections are also dreadfully fatal to rice-fed Orientals, who are able to do immense labor by the oxidation of these carbon fuel-foods, but whose tissues are in a condition of nitrogen bankruptcy. Well-fed Europeans not only escape the diseases, as a

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rule, but when they are infected a much larger percentage recover. This is the reason why the English army was compelled to increase the meat ration in India, and it is now an axiom that in the exhaustions of a tropical climate more nitrogen is needed than at home. In spite of these well-known facts, Dr. Wiley, the Government food expert, not so long ago advocated a reduction of nitrogen in the tropics and a fruit diet. If we would follow that advice tropical campaigns would be impossible, and as an actual fact the digging of the Panama Canal was found to be impossible if laborers were not fed with plenty of nitrogen supplied by Government commissaries. Experience showed that on the fruit diet they were as feeble as the soldiers on Professor Chittenden's diet. Meat is now making the dirt fly, and this great revolution was made by a layman, in spite of the foolish theories of the dietetists, and he did it because he found that the healthiest men were the well-fed prisoners in jail.

Evidence of starvation among the submerged tenth can be found aplenty in all works on poverty. The results in destruction of health are the reasons for the existence of about 50,000 more American physicians than there would be if every one could get and use as much nitrogen as his tissues demand, and that amount varies with the work. It need only be mentioned here that, if our present death rate continues, ten million Americans now living are doomed to die of tuberculosis, and Robert Hunter estimates that ten million of the inefficient classes are constantly on the verge of underfeeding and often are unable to get enough.

The third blunder is the assumption that these fat-free "trained" men with cordlike muscles are normal, whereas they are abnormal to a degree. We must repeat that the normal man has a layer of fat under his skin. These "trained" men were able to lift weights, make records on dynamometers, run a mile or perform a short test, but they had no staying power. The purpose of the "training" of athletes and horses is to produce powerful breathing muscles, and a big heart which will be able to do tremendous pumping of blood for a short time of excessive activity. Only the young organism will react to such practices, and it is left with something it has little use for in later life and which might be injurious—an hypertrophied heart which may later become dilated. Now and then there is a desperate effort made to prove that "training" is not harmful, but the argu-

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ments are wofully misleading and not based on facts. There is plenty of evidence that young men able to indulge in sports are longer lived than those too frail to make records. No one denies that; but it is far from proving that the recent craze for "training" immature boys is productive of longevity. The after-lives of professional athletes are not over-long nor over-healthy.

Now, the whole aim of military training is the exact opposite of college athletic training. It is designed not to enlarge the hearts, but to give a great store of surplus energy to enable soldiers to endure long strains with a minimum of harm. No man can go through a long war without injury to health—it is beyond human endurance—and the tremendous pension roll is evidence of that fact—not evidence of fraud, as so many people hint. There is a prevalent idea that we must train soldiers by subjecting them to the real strains of war, but that is as dangerous as submitting them to actual gun-fire to teach them how to stand up before bullets in battle. Athletes make poor soldiers, as a rule, for they are able to make severe exertion for a short time instead of less exertion for a long time, and they have no reserve force.

We will do well to increase the ration even more and make it unnecessary for soldiers to buy extra food as at present. Civilians who wish to sink into a condition of nitrogen starvation must take the consequences of possible physiological bankruptcy.

Professor Chittenden proved, what military sieges have proved for thousands of years, that people can exist in a weakened state for long periods on a restricted diet. But he proved something infinitely more important, something which has also been known for a long time; and that is the fact that muscles can be compelled to store up nourishment needed elsewhere. While the nervous system is crying out for food, we can cause the muscles to grow big. Athletes often, if not generally, are on the verge of nervous exhaustion and if not managed with exquisite skill they are "stale"—another word for neurasthenia. This is the reason why so many old professionals resort to alcohol or become victims of tuberculosis. Many a college athlete is unable to apply himself to his books, and it is found absolutely necessary in all colleges to cut them off from athletics when the exhaustion has gone that far. Every scholar should take part in athletic sports, but not be a "trained" athlete nor flabby "bookworm."

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It is high time that the science of dietetics should free itself of the horde of parasitic fads which have fastened themselves upon it. It is the black sheep in the flock of sciences which make up that greater science called "medicine," and it has been under a cloud long enough. Nothing is too absurd to be advocated, from a diet of peanuts to one of raw meat. For many years the real science of dietetics was content with a mere study of what people were eating in all walks of life in every part of the world. It was sad enough to have the illogical conclusion once thrust upon us that these dietaries were necessarily correct, without regard to the results as to vigor and immunity from disease. Indeed, no one seemed to think that the coolie ate rice because it was the only thing he could get, and that he greedily ate better food whenever he had a chance. When the real scientists took up the work of experimental dietetics, it was with keen expectation that the medical profession looked forward to enlightenment—and the enlightenment we got was the new fad that we eat too much of the thing of which we are built, a fad which will destroy a nation as surely as it will destroy an army. Long before there was a "science" of dietetics, Napoleon said that an army "travels on its stomach," and every other man who has ever had the management of bodies of workers has said that they work on their stomachs. And we can apply the same rule to the nation and to the whole race.

Though we cannot build a ship without iron or a man without nitrogen, yet, after the building is done, we can well reduce these elements; and it is surprising the small amount of nitrogen with which an old sedentary man can retain efficiency—but that is another story, for we are here concerned with the danger of insufficient nitrogen until well along in middle life. It has been reported that within a year two college boys have died while subjecting themselves to low nitrogen diet, and in each case the physicians in attendance were of opinion that the lowered vitality from partial nitrogen starvation was the real cause of death. Names and places have been suppressed as a matter of course, but there does not seem to be any doubt as to the reality of the facts. So let us teach good feeding, and then, perhaps, we will not hear of so many students who have broken down from "overwork," which is too often, if not always, "underfeeding."

CHARLES E. WOODRUFF.

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FOUR YEARS OF ENGLISH LIBERALISM.

BY BRITANNICUS.

GREAT BRITAIN, as I write, is in the throes of a General Election, the issue of which will be known before this article appears in print. I shall not, therefore, be so foolish as to attempt to forecast it. But it is difficult to believe that there can be any result but one of the appeal that is now being taken to the electorate. England in many eyes would almost have ceased to be England if she did not reject the claim of the House of Lords to control the national finances. But apart from that transcendent issue the Liberals are fortified in their hopes of victory by the record they have established during the past four years. It is this record I propose to examine, a record of legislative energy unique, I think, in British history and one that not only exemplifies the range and effectiveness of the British Parliament as a law-making instrument, but that can hardly fail to interest students of political tendencies and social reformers everywhere.

When the Liberals, in January, 1906, came back to power they had been out of office for virtually twenty years. It is true that a Liberal Ministry reigned from 1892 to 1895. It reigned, but it did not rule. It was dependent on the Irish vote for its very existence; its majority rarely rose above forty; the House of Lords did much as it pleased with its measures; and the retirement of Mr. Gladstone and the accession of Lord Rosebery to the Premiership produced an outburst of internal dissension. With that exception, if it can be called an exception, the Liberals had been excluded from office since the middle eighties. The pendulum was slow to swing to their side, but when it did swing it was with shattering effects. The Liberals rode into power in 1906 with one of the largest majorities in the annals of British Parliaments. They had a clear plurality over all other parties

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combined of eighty-eight; and their forces when allied with those of the Irish Nationalists and of the Labor group outnumbered the Unionists by no less than 356. They owed their triumph to many causes. They were greatly helped by the folly of the Unionists in permitting the introduction into the Transvaal mines of Chinese laborers under conditions that shocked the moral sense of England. They were also helped by the unmeasured hostility of the Nonconformists towards the Education Act of 1902. In all constituencies where no Labor candidate was running the Labor vote went to swell the Liberal majority, chiefly because the Unionist Government had done nothing to reverse the judicial decisions that made Trades-Unions liable for damages and declared picketing illegal. Again, the Licensing Act passed by Mr. Balfour's Cabinet was regarded by many Englishmen who were far from being Temperance agitators as an unworthy surrender to the brewers. These were tangible allies on the Liberal side, and their influence was considerably increased by the inevitable discontent that fastens upon any Government that has been long in power, by the memory of several grave administrative scandals arising out of the South-African war, and, above all, by the conviction that Mr. Balfour's failure to make his fiscal policy intelligible to the multitude, and his tactics of evasion and subterfuge, dishonored both the country and the Parliament. All this, undoubtedly, had its weight. But beyond everything else was the question of maintaining Free Trade. The enormous majority polled by the Liberals was first and foremost an emphatic repudiation by the country of Mr. Chamberlain's Protectionist propaganda.

The Liberals, then, were returned to uphold Free Trade, to make an end of Chinese Labor, to amend the Licensing and Education Acts of the preceding Government, to carry out a long-overdue programme of social and industrial reform and to reverse by legislation the decision of the courts in the famous Taff Vale case. By this decision Trades-Unions were adjudged liable to damages for wrongful acts committed by their officials during the conduct of a strike. In this way the payments which Trade-Unionists had made to the "benefit" funds of their organization could be debited with whatever damages a court of law might inflict for torts committed during a strike by Trade-Union officials. Again, the law was in a state of chaos on the subject of

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"picketing." John Jones might advise people not to work for the Great Western Railway. If the officials of the Amalgamated Society of Railway Servants did the same thing they broke the law. One person could not "conspire"; a number of persons could. Recent decisions, moreover, had declared that Trades-Unions, as corporations, were not only legally capable of doing wrong, but far more capable than private individuals. The Liberal Government within a few months after taking office passed a Bill, the Trades Disputes Bill, which secured complete immunity for all Trade-Union funds, legalized peaceful picketing and laid down the principle that any act lawful in the eye of the civil and criminal codes if done by an individual is not unlawful if done by a combination. To Americans such privileges have probably an ominous sound, but as a matter of fact the Trades Dispute Bill of 1906 did no more than confirm the British Trade-Unions in the possession of rights which they had already enjoyed for over a quarter of a century.

In the same year the Government passed a Workmen's Compensation Act. This Act amended and consolidated the law as to compensation for injuries, extended its benefits to seamen and shipmasters, shop assistants, postmen, domestic servants, and to all employees whose annual remuneration was less than $1,250, awarded compensation for all injuries causing more than one week's incapacity, established a special scale of compensation for persons under twenty-one earning less than five dollars a week, and made provision for facilitating the computation of the amount due as compensation, for safeguarding workmen against oppressive agreements, for regulating the disbursement of the amounts payable to dependents of deceased workmen, and for enabling the services of medical referees to be more fully utilized. Another Act, also passed in 1906, considerably simplified and improved the system of reporting accidents in mines, quarries, factories and workshops. A third Act of the same year, the Merchant Shipping Act, established for the first time a compulsory food scale on board ship, secured on all foreign-going ships the carrying of a certificated cook, increased the space that must be given to the accommodation of the crew, imposed on foreign ships in British ports the same regulations as to load-line, life-saving appliances, grain cargoes and unseaworthiness as are applicable to British ships, and prohibited the granting of any fresh pilotage

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certificates to aliens. A more recent Act, passed in 1909 and called the Trade Boards Act, attacked the industrial and social evil of sweating. It set up for certain trades Boards composed of representatives of employers and of workers in equal numbers, with official members appointed by the Board of Trade. The duty of the Trade Boards is to fix minimum rates of wages for both time-work and piece-work in the following trades: (1) ready-made and bespoke wholesale tailoring; (2) cardboard-box making; (3) machine-made lace and net finishing; and (4) ready-made blouse making. The Act provided also that other trades might from time to time be added to the list.

When Mr. Lloyd George was President of the Board of Trade he passed two very useful Acts, one ordering a regular census of British production—a census that will reveal for the first time the dimensions of the home trade—and another providing that patents held in Great Britain must be worked in Great Britain under penalty of being revoked. But his greatest triumph was the settlement at the end of 1907 of what at one moment threatened to be the greatest strike in the history of British railways. He averted it by setting up Conciliation Boards between masters and men to which all questions of hours, wages, etc., should be referred for adjustment and by providing for impartial arbitration in the event of the Boards failing to agree. The scheme was accepted at once by eleven railway companies and thirty-five other companies have since subscribed to it. It has worked with remarkable smoothness and holds out a really solid assurance of peace in the railway world for many years to come. Mr. Winston Churchill has shown himself as alert and enterprising a President of the Board of Trade as was his predecessor. The present year will see his Labor Exchanges Act at work all over the country. By that Act Labor Exchanges will be established on a uniform system throughout Great Britain for the purpose of giving information as to where men are wanted and what kinds of jobs are to be had. The buildings in which they are to be housed will offer facilities for washing, for clothes-mending and for non-alcoholic refreshment; separate provision is to be made for men and women and for skilled and unskilled labor; boy labor will be dealt with in co-operation with the local education authority; and travelling expenses can be advanced on loan to workmen for whom situations are procured. In these ways it is hoped, at a

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cost of about $1,000,000 a year, to increase the mobility of labor and to bring the whole problem of unemployment under focus. Another measure standing to Mr. Winston Churchill's credit is the Port of London Act which provides for the purchase of the existing docks and their management henceforward by a Port Authority, amply provided with funds and borrowing powers for improving and extending the docks and dredging the channels of the Thames, and administered by the elected representatives of the traders and ship-owners using the Port. Besides all this, the Liberal Government in the past four years has brought the Board of Trade into far closer and more helpful touch with the business world than it ever was before; has improved the conditions of labor in the Government arsenals, dockyards, and so on; has recognized Trade-Unions of Government employees; has shortened the hours of labor in laundries and has brought under the inspection of the Home Office all industries carried on for profit in charitable and reformatory institutions, such as convents and reformatories; has passed an Act establishing an eight-hour day in coal-mines; has prohibited the use of white phosphorus in the manufacture of matches; has set up a new department for supervising the Mines Regulation Acts; has largely increased the staff of Factory Inspectors; has issued a large number of regulations for safeguarding workers against accident or disease; and has instituted, as a preliminary to legislation, official inquiries into such subjects as the amendment of the Truck Acts; lead-poisoning; the calculation of wages paid by weight in iron and steel trades, in quarries, cement-works, etc.; the conditions of employment in fish-curing; infant mortality among factory workers' children; and the employment of children as half-timers.

At the head of all the measures of social legislation passed by the Liberal Government stands the Old-Age Pensions Act of 1908. By this Act all people of seventy and over except aliens, criminals, lunatics, and persons in receipt of Poor Law Relief, are entitled to a pension not exceeding five shillings ($1.25) a week, provided their incomes from all sources do not exceed $157.50 a year. Those with incomes of not more than $105—and they are the vast majority of the pensioners—draw their five shillings a week from the Post-Office. Those with incomes between $105 and $157.50 draw four, three, two or one shilling a week according to a graduated scale. Altogether some 682,000

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old men and women have come within the scope of the Act, and when the receipt of Poor Law Relief ceases, as it soon will, to be a disqualification, their numbers will be increased by between 200,000 and 300,000 and the annual charge on the State will amount to little less than $50,000,000 a year. Another very important measure passed by the Liberals is the Small Holding Acts of 1907. This Act authorized the taking of land compulsorily for Small Holdings and Allotments either by purchase or on lease, and it provided a cheap and easy process for acquiring the land thus procured either, in the case of purchase, at its fair market value, or, in the case of leasing, at a fair rent. It came into operation on January 1st, 1908, and has so far resulted in 23,000 persons applying for over 373,000 acres. Of these 13,200 applicants have been approved by the County Councils and nearly 60,000 acres have been acquired under the Act for their reception. No more significant or successful move has been taken in our time for the repopulation of the English countryside. A third and not less notable measure, the Development Act of 1909, establishes a fund that will probably never be less than $3,500,000 a year for the purposes of aiding and developing agriculture, forestry and rural industries, of draining and reclaiming land, of improving rural transport, of improving harbors and canals, and of developing fisheries. The Act further sets up a Road Board to spend $3,000,000 a year—derived from the taxes on motor-cars and petrol—on the extension and improvement of the existing road system.

Another valuable contribution to social reform was made by Mr. John Burns in his Housing and Town-planning Act of 1909. This Act requires every County Council to appoint a Medical Officer of Health who must devote his whole time to his duties; it sets up, and takes power to enforce, a high standard of fitness for human habitation of practically all working-class dwellings throughout the country; it vests the local authorities with new and stringent powers for acquiring land for building purposes and for demolishing unsanitary areas; it prohibits back-to-back houses and cellar dwellings; and for the first time in English history it authorizes schemes for regulating the development of towns on a settled and approved system so as to provide for the needs of public health, social amenities and future growth. A yet more intimate and interesting experiment in social well-being has been

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made by the Liberals in connection with children. By an Act passed in 1906 they empowered local Education Authorities to assist voluntary efforts for feeding underfed school-children by providing buildings, furniture, apparatus, etc., the food to be furnished by voluntary effort. In cases where the Education Authority is satisfied that there are children in want of food and that voluntary help is not forthcoming or is inadequate, it may itself provide the food to the extent of a halfpenny rate, recovering from the parent the price for each meal thus supplied to his child. By a second Act passed in 1907 the Liberals provided for the medical inspection of children in elementary schools and empowered the local Education Authorities to make arrangements for their medical treatment. Similarly the Liberals have revised with admirable boldness the Physical Exercises Syllabus in use in the public schools; have limited, or have tried to limit, the employment of children in street trading; have provided for the earlier notification of births in the hope of reducing infant mortality; have taken a hint from American experience in dealing with child offenders; and, finally, have passed an Act, known as the Children Act of 1908, which might better be described as the Children's Charter. I wish I had space to consider this Act with the fulness it deserves. It provides, among other things, for the effective official supervision of all "Homes," orphanages and similar institutions in which young children are nursed and taken charge of for payment. It greatly strengthens the law relating to the prevention of cruelty to children. It makes every case of death by overlaying due to the drunkenness of a parent or guardian a punishable offence. It obliges parents to surround their grates with fire-guards. It insists on a sufficient number of adults being present at children's entertainments to insure their safety in the event of fire or panic. It sets up a "Juvenile Court" for child offenders, sitting at a different time or place from the ordinary court, separates the children from older delinquents, forbids their imprisonment in ordinary gaols, and orders parents to attend the court when their children are charged and to pay the fine if they have been remiss in their parental duties. The Act makes it a penal offence to give alcohol to children under the age of five anywhere, except in case of illness, and children under fourteen are forbidden to enter any part of a saloon. Tobacconists are not allowed to sell cigarettes or cigarette

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papers to any one under sixteen; pawnbrokers are forbidden to have dealings with children under twelve and metal and marine store dealers with children under sixteen; and vagrants are prohibited from taking their children with them about the country at such times and in such a way as to deprive them of all education.

In Ireland, though it failed to take the hoped-for step towards devolution, the Liberal Government has accomplished much. It passed an Act restoring to their holdings the two thousand evicted tenants who still survived from the land war of the eighties; it founded a university acceptable to Irish Catholics—a problem that has baffled British statesmanship for a generation and more; it has governed the country by means of the ordinary law and without once resorting to coercion; and just before Parliament was dissolved it succeeded in placing on the Statute-Book an Act that will rescue the policy of land purchase from the deadlock caused by the breakdown of the financial arrangements of the Act of 1903 and will also do something to relieve the congestion and poverty of the West. As Postmaster-General, Mr. Sydney Buxton's record has probably never been equalled for enterprise and efficiency. He has established a penny postage rate for letters between Great Britain and the United States and between Great Britain and nearly all her colonies and dependencies; he has reduced by seventy-five per cent. the postage on newspapers, magazines and trade journals to Canada; he has greatly extended the telephone system which in 1912 becomes the possession of the State; he has acquired for the State the sole ownership of wireless telegraphy; and apart from many minor reforms he has handled the not always tractable staff of the Post-Office with eminent judgment and good feeling. In the sphere of legal reform the Liberals have instituted a Court of Criminal Appeal, have provided for the adoption of the Borstal system in the case of youthful offenders over the age of sixteen, and have altered the law so as to subject habitual criminals to prolonged detention under conditions somewhat less severe than those of ordinary penal servitude. They have not given women the suffrage, but they have passed many Acts for the benefit of the sex; one, for instance, prohibiting night work by women in mines and factories, another enabling a married woman to dispose of her property without the concurrence of her husband, a third legalizing mar-

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riage with a deceased wife's sister, and a fourth throwing open the borough and county councils to women rate-payers. As regards finance, their main achievements have been to stop the pernicious practice of borrowing on capital account for current expenditure, to pay off $235,000,000 of national debt, to differentiate for the purposes of income-tax assessment between earned and unearned incomes, to more than halve the tax on sugar, to abolish the export tax on coal, to reduce the taxes on tea and tobacco, to effect a net yearly decrease of over $35,000,000 in the taxation account, and to introduce the famous Budget in which Mr. Lloyd George taxed land values, mineral royalties, reversions and undeveloped land, exacted a fair return from the liquor trade for the monopoly it enjoys, and still further graduated the income tax. Their Army reforms are almost too technical for discussion in an American Review, but I think one may fairly say that Mr. Haldane, by organizing a highly efficient expeditionary force of 166,000 men, ready for service at any moment and in any part of the Empire, and by raising on the basis of local patriotism and endeavor a Territorial force of 312,000 for home defence, has proved himself the greatest administrator who has yet directed the British War Office. I think, too, that, in spite of many assertions to the contrary, the Liberals have steered a sound course between needless expenditure and ill-timed economy in the vital question of the Navy and that they have fully maintained the two-power standard.

The Liberals came into office in 1906 pledged to abolish Chinese Labor in South Africa. They have carried out their pledge. By the time this article appears in print it is doubtful whether there will be left on the Rand a single one of the 53,000 Chinamen who were working there three years ago. In other respects, too, the Liberal policy in South Africa has been singularly happy. The grant of responsible self-government to the Transvaal and the Orange Free State was an act of high and generous statesmanship, justified a thousand times over by the union of the four South-African States which has been its magnificent sequel. As a rule, Liberal Governments in the past have been decidedly weak in their Imperial and foreign policies. No such charge can be brought against the Ministry that is now appealing to the country. It has done more than any Government that has yet held office in Great Britain to make the Empire something more than

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a glittering abstraction, to knit its component parts together by military, naval and commercial conventions, and to develop the resources of its more backward regions. In India, again, Lord Morley has handled a very difficult and perplexing crisis as one would expect him to handle it—with courage, patience and sympathy; and the large and effective powers of self-government he has entrusted to the natives open up a new, momentous and inspiriting era in Anglo-Indian relations. In his conduct of foreign affairs Sir Edward Grey has been even more successful. He was obliged to stand sponsor for, though he probably did not initiate, the futile scheme of disarmament submitted to the Hague Conference, and he failed to appraise with accuracy the forces that were working against him in the Balkan crisis of a year ago. But apart from these two mistakes he has done admirably. He has pretty well wiped the Anglo-American slate clean of all contentious issues; he upheld France with steadfastness and effect during the Algeciras Conference; he has brought about an Agreement between Great Britain, France and Spain for the maintenance in common of their Mediterranean interests; he has negotiated a far-reaching *rapprochement* with Russia; he has reinforced the Alliance with Japan; and throughout the Turkish and the Persian revolutions he displayed coolheadedness, dignity and good sense.

The Liberals have failed in three major and in three minor undertakings. Their efforts to solve the Education problem on the basis of full popular control over all rate-aided schools, the abolition of religious tests for teachers, non-sectarian Bible teaching, and reasonable facilities for special denominations, were foiled by the Lords. Their efforts to assert the supremacy of the State over the liquor trade were likewise frustrated; and the Lords, besides hanging up Mr. Lloyd George's Budget, have rejected a Bill abolishing plural voting, a Scotch Small Landholders' Bill, a Scotch Land Values Bill and a Bill constituting London a single Parliamentary borough. But even though these measures were lost the Liberal record remains one of unique practicality and success, inspired by sincerity and humanity, and remarkably illustrative of the scope and fascination of British political life.

BRITANNICUS.

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ON THE ORIGIN OF WALLER'S COUPLETS.

BY WILLIAM W. GAY.

WHEN Jonathan Swift in the first fresh colors of his satirical humor portrayed Grub Street for Prince Posterity, he painted an immortal picture of literary London at the opening of the eighteenth century. As we contemplate it only a slight effort of imagination is needed to hear the shrill cries of the hawkers selling at the coffee-houses the latest political libel: to see the perukes of the wits and the dandies bending over the day's attack upon the ministry, the most recent scandal in high life, or the last essay in verse of the reigning poet. It was a time of extraordinary, even feverish literary activity, in which the latest lampoon vied with the last bulletin from Marlborough's victorious army, and under the assaults of wit ministers fell with the regularity of the defeat of the French.

Of the horde of men who then labored in the field of letters and starved in the hope of fame, how many names survive? A few makers of verse are now and then upon occasions read, and the genius of but one of these was brilliant enough to penetrate to us through the mists of formalism. The age of Anne was an age of prose. Its triumphs were won by Addison, Steele, Swift and DeFoe, who have given us prose which men will read even though Pope shall have sunk, like his foes in the Dunciad, under the thick, black waters of Oblivion. It is not the "Essay on Man" or the "Rape of the Lock," poems which dimmed for eighteenth-century eyes the suns of Spenser, Chaucer and Shakespeare, that first challenge our admiration, but the "Spectator," the "Tale of the Tub" and "Robinson Crusoe." Never until then had England produced for the delight of men such prose, though Ascham, and Bacon, and Hooker, and Taylor and Milton had exercised their genius in it.

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Great was the contrast with the opening years of the seventeenth century when yet the Elizabethan choir were in full song. The English muse, free, buoyant and natural then, now walked in trammels like a school miss bound by the rules of correct deportment. In 1600 "Hamlet," "Othello," "Lear," "Antony and Cleopatra," "Twelfth Night" and the "Tempest" were yet to be given to the public. Jonson's "Volpone" and "Alchemist" had not been written. Massinger, Fletcher, Webster and Ford were yet to do their work. In 1700 Milton, the last great English poet to hold the Elizabethan tradition, had been in his grave but twenty-six years. Herrick, whose lyrics still dance in the minds of men, had died as lately, and Ben Jonson had left his sons to mourn his empty seat at the Mermaid little more than fifty years before. In so short a time how great a revolution in the taste of intellectual England! How was it that men came to prefer the verses of Swift, of Prior, Parnell and Gay to the musical and imaginative poetry of the Elizabethans? the "Essay on Man" to "Hero and Leander"? the "Campaign" to Drayton's martial "Agincourt"? the comedies of Wycherly to "Twelfth Night" and "As You Like it"? What was it that so dulled English minds that Shakespeare and Jonson and all the poets of their day seemed rude, barbarous and without taste?

Whim will sometimes account well enough for the fact that a people occasionally will neglect a really great writer for an inconsequential rival who has struck by chance a popular note. So a gust of wind will drive a bee from the honeysuckle or clover to some coarser bloom. But there must be something stronger than whim or fashion so to change a whole nation's taste that it became possible for Hume to say with applause that "of all the great poets Virgil and Racine" seemed the most just as lying farthest from the extremes of ornamentation, and therefore the most admirable, and to declare with the sunlight of the Elizabethan age shining in his eyes that "with regard to the stage, they (the French) have excelled even the Greeks, who far excelled the English," so placing Racine in his pseudo-classicism far up on Olympus not only above Shakespeare, but above Æschylus, Sophocles and Euripides.

Until within recent years this great change in the spirit of English letters, particularly the rise of the classical school of poetry, was attributed to French example as a matter of course.

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It was an easy solution of a difficult problem and one that seemed obvious. The great authority of Boileau, the co-existence of the two similar schools in France and England, the long exile in France, at a time when the French classical poets were flourishing, of certain English poets who became conspicuous after the restoration and the French sympathies of the court of Charles II naturally suggested the solution. So firm had this conclusion become through long acceptance that when Mr. Gosse delivered his lectures before Johns Hopkins University combating this view as unhistorical and wholly untenable, he aroused almost a storm of hostile criticism. But Mr. Gosse demonstrated the very great probability that Edmund Waller had written in the reformed couplet "To the King on His Navy" and others of his early poems before Malherbe published his first essays in verse, and, accepting this as true, that the appearance in English literature of the school of Waller, Dryden and Pope was a phenomenon to be attributed wholly to native influences. Beyond that he did not go. Briefly to discover what those influences were, and, more particularly, where Waller found the pattern of his couplets, or the inspiration to them, are the objects of this essay.

It is not to be denied that the French poets and critics exerted a strong influence over English writers. Dryden, to a certain degree, especially in the use of rhyme in dramatic composition, was affected by them, although he said he was led to make his experiments in rhymed drama rather by the example of some of the older English writers. To a far greater degree Pope and Addison were under the French spell. But it may be said with confidence that this influence was strong chiefly because it was in harmony with an original, native movement, that it only confirmed a taste which had already developed through a natural evolution. Had the reformed couplet been the result of a purely imitative fashion, the movement never would have become the literary tyranny which in fact it was. It probably would have passed away in a decade or two as the rhymed tragedy passed, and as went the imitative school which in the latter part of the last century sought to naturalize in the commonwealth of English poetry the more artificial verse forms of the early French poets.

Those who have accepted the theory of French dominance and English tutelage have done so in disregard of the opinion

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of one whose statements in such matters we are bound to respect. Dryden, who found that he had "a soul congenial to" Chaucer's, and that they "had been conversant in the same studios," was insistent upon the natural development of English poetry and a line of inheritance from Chaucer to himself and his contemporaries. He discovered in the poems of "the father of English poetry" many verses "of ten syllables, and the words not much behind our present English; as, for example, these two lines in the description of the carpenter's wife:

> "Wincing she was as is a jolly colt,
> Long as a mast and upright as a bolt."

He was, it is true, speaking then rather of the supposed roughness of Chaucer's verse and of his use of obsolete words than of any imagined similarity between his couplets and Waller's; but Dryden's opinion clearly was that the English poetry of his day was wholly native; and he who was the first great English critic, who has been called the first of English men of letters, who undoubtedly was more deeply read in English literature than any other Englishman then living, gave the credit of reforming English versification to Waller and Denham.

Now what were the causes of this strange change in the form and spirit of poetry which began so early in the seventeenth century while Elizabethan poets were still upon the stage? Poets are creatures largely of their environment, and when they make a strong impression upon their times it is because they express earlier or better than others the temper and thought of their day. Discarding the theory of French influence, then, we must look for the causes of so remarkable a phenomenon to the intellectual or social movements preceding or accompanying it. Genius knows no law of succession, and the appearance of a compelling genius often seems as unaccountable as a miracle; but the decline of the impulsive and creative spirit of a people to the artificial and mechanical is generally plain and gradual and is to be accounted for not in radical changes in men's natures but in the existence of new centres of human interest.

It was such a decline which began early in the seventeenth century following the sudden, short-lived efflorescence of passionate poetry among the Elizabethans. Men were as passionate under James and Charles as under Elizabeth, and they were more strongly because more sincerely moved out of their ordi-

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nary feelings; but the turbulence of their passions ran in new channels. Their hearts were in their religious and political controversies. They were no longer curious observers of the external world, but of the inner, and as their eyes turned from the greater world to the smaller of self-interest, their horizon narrowed and the spirit dwarfed. It was under these conditions that the new school of poetry had its obvious beginning. A new spirit was beginning to move English minds. A new England was about to arise, and, in some respects, a new Englishman. Modern industrial England was beginning, or about to begin, to lay its foundations. A rapid increase of wealth among the people was soon to establish the "money interest." The Puritan movement was nursing a democratic spirit which modified greatly the ideals of English society. A lively sense of peril to church and to private property united noble and commoner in an attack upon prerogative with the direct result of the Commonwealth.

It was the Puritan and the political movements which most obviously affected English thought, but the new philosophy of Bacon was working with them to the same ends. It inspired scholars both in the universities and at London to question popular beliefs and to explore the field of nature, awakening a scepticism which was to give England a Locke and beget the deism of the next century. A thousand controversies were awakened. Authority was attacked in all its seats, and search was begun for truth, for new foundations of belief in statecraft, theology and the physical sciences.

Now the language of science and of controversy is prose. When images rather than facts preoccupied the mind, and the Latin was deemed the true language of the scholar, English prose was quaint or stately, often overburdened with quotations from the classics, not seldom pompous or obscure; but now, when the practical Englishman supplants the romantic, and the soul struggles to deliver itself of its message in the most convincing way, we find him gradually abandoning the style of his fathers and slowly polishing his sentences in the heat of controversy. The change first appears naturally in the Parliament where Sir John Eliot surprises his fellows with a new order of forensic eloquence and gives them their first examples of direct, simple, vigorous statements of fact and reasons. The new spirit steadily permeates English scholarship until English prose finds its high-

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est expression of that century in the writings of Tillotson and Dryden.

In such an atmosphere a poet who would speak the language of the day and command the attention of a people given up to a search for truth and the pursuit of holiness, must be in great measure didactic, and that is precisely what Waller was, though he aspired to a lyric wreath: and it is significant that the poet who was to affect profoundly for a hundred years the poetry of England was a Parliament man and one of the first debaters of the House of Commons.

In other words, the English people lost their relish for poetry and developed a passion for prose. Their "love of concrete imagery" so characteristic of the Elizabethan gave way to their love of fact. They ceased to be rhapsodical and became argumentative. Imagination withered and reflection flourished. Those poets who believed themselves to be the heirs of the mantles of the greater singers of Elizabeth imitated chiefly their weaknesses. To a realization of their absurdities Mr. Gosse and others have attributed the revulsion in taste which established the authority of Waller.

Well-known facts have been recited at some length not only to account for Waller and in some degree for the directness, simplicity and lucidity of expression which characterized his school, but also for his ready acceptance by English readers. His style of versification was exactly suited to the mental mood which was becoming a general habit of mind of many Englishmen. To a sober, deadly earnest and militant soul convinced of the existence of great social evils and national peril and resolved to end them, the Elizabethan singers had become triflers, their lyric power weakness, and their revelations of truth in the lightning flashes of genius only foolishness. Waller's method lent itself to the fuller and better expression of the subjective spirit of the age, and therefore it was welcomed and developed until it broke down under the weight of rhymed systems of philosophy as the Elizabethan method was already breaking down under the burden of conceits.

Why Waller adopted the heroic couplet in constructing his chief poems is not hard to understand. It was a common form of English verse. As it is to-day, so then it was the natural vehicle of didacticism. Chaucer had used it. Spenser had em-

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ployed it. The satirists had found it the best weapon of their warfare: and the poet who to-day should set himself at the task of writing a poetical address or a satirical poem of any length would find it hard to resist the attraction of the heroic couplet whose dignity, flow and balanced clauses, with the music of recurring rhyme, still fascinate in spite of a monotony that in time must weary the ear.

Now Waller was not first of all a poet. He was first a rhetorician, an orator and a politician who found congenial the turmoil and intrigue resulting from the life-and-death struggle between king and Parliament. He was a reformer to whose mind the new political ideas appealed—in short, a man of affairs of the day. Naturally as the result of his own temperament and of his environment he fell into didacticism, and when he set up as a poet, led by instinct, he adopted the rhymed pentameter couplet as his proper medium of expression.

But Waller's couplets differed from those of his predecessors in two important particulars. As a rule the older writers had these faults unpardonable in the eyes of the wits of Queen Anne—their versification was rugged and unrestrained. A single sentence would be carried or a thought pursued through many consecutive verses, often ending in the middle of a line. This tendency to overflow led to slovenliness in construction, sometimes to wearisome prolixity, and not infrequently to obscurity. In Waller's verses we discover for the first time in compositions wholly in heroic couplets an evident and a sustained effort to avoid these faults. His words are chosen with care for the smoothness and harmony of his lines, and rarely is he guilty of an overflow. In very early verses we find him restraining his thought to each couplet, as in these:

> "Where e'er thy Navy spreads her canvas Wings,
> Homage to thee, and Peace to all she brings:
> The French and Spaniard when thy Flags appear
> Forget their Hatred and consent to fear."

These lines as they appear in the first authorized edition of Waller's poems published in 1664 might have been written by Joseph Addison, yet unless, as Johnson supposed, they were polished by the poet before their first surreptitious publication in 1645, they were among the first-fruits of his youthful muse.

Now it may be that a poet shall arise, by force of genius,

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without artistic forebears, the singular product of unprecedented conditions, but it is not probable that there ever was or ever will be such a one, no matter how impossible it may seem to account historically for him. Before Homer sang the gods were. And Waller was only a man of talent. With all due respect for the great men who sat at his feet, as some of them sat also at the feet of the seventeenth-century Pindar, he is not now to be considered as more than a versesmith who hammered out couplets remarkable for the time, which were to affect profoundly the course of English poetry, but have value to-day chiefly for the student. He was competent in his trade, but Dorothy Sidney, as has been said, was a better judge than Waller's imitators, of the quality of his cold and polished verses to Sacharissa.

On the authority of Dryden we know that Waller acknowledged Edward Fairfax, an Elizabethan poet, as his literary master. In Dryden's preface to the fables he says that "many besides myself have heard our famous Waller own that he derived the harmony of his numbers from the 'Godfrey of Bulloign' which was turned into English by Mr. Fairfax." Johnson repeats this, adding that by his own nicety of observation as well as the perusal of Fairfax's "Tasso," "he had already formed such a system of metrical harmony as he never afterwards much needed or much endeavored to improve." And it has been recorded—by Johnson, perhaps—that Waller was so entranced by Fairfax's translation that he committed large portions of it to memory.

Fairfax's "Tasso" was first published in 1600. Two reprints were made in the seventeenth century, both of them said to be inaccurate. A fourth edition with the Elizabethan spelling somewhat modernized appeared in 1749. From this later edition such extracts as are here given have been taken. The stanza used by Fairfax is composed of six lines alternately rhyming and a closing rhymed pentameter couplet as follows:

"The sacred Armies and the godly Knight,
Who the great Sepulcher of Christ did free,
I sing: much wrought his Valour and Foresight,
And in that glorious War much suffer'd he:
In vain 'gainst him did Hell oppose her Might,
In vain the Turks and Morians armèd be;
His Soldiers wild, to Brawls and Mut'nies prest,
Reducèd he to Peace, so Heav'n him blest."

A similar versification was adopted by Spenser in composing his

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"Muiopotmos," or the "Fate of the Butterfly," published nine years before the "Tasso." There are some things about this poem of Spenser's which lead one to think that Fairfax studied it in composing his own verses, but it is rather to the dissimilarities of the two that attention is now to be paid, and for this purpose these stanzas are taken from it:

"I sing of deadly dolorous debate,
Stirr'd up through wrathful Nemesis' despite,
Betwixt two mighty ones of great estate,
Drawn into arms, and proof of mortal fight,
Through proud ambition and heart-swelling hate,
Whilst neither could the other's greater might
And 'sdainful scorn endure: that from small jar
Their wrath at length broke into open war:

"The root whereof and tragical effect
Vouchsafe, O thou, the mournfull'st Muse of nine,
That wont'st the tragic stage for to direct,
In funeral complaints and wailful tine,
Reveal to me and all the means detect,
Through which sad Clarion did at last decline
To lowest wretchedness: and is there then
Such rancour in the hearts of mighty men?"

Compare with these typical stanzas of Spenser almost any consecutive stanzas of Fairfax and there will be observed in the latter a great advance toward the simplicity of construction and the restraint of the writers of the succeeding epoch. In Spenser's verse the tendency to overflow is strong. In most of the stanzas of "Muiopotmos" the reader is hurried along almost breathlessly sometimes to the end of each, and in the two quoted, through, in effect, fourteen verses and part of the fifteenth. Consider now these stanzas taken from the twelfth book of the "Tasso" in which the fight between Clorinda and Tancred is described:

"He deem'd she was some Man of mickle Might,
And on her Person would he Worship win;
Over the Hills the Nymph her Journey dight
Towards another Port, there to get in;
With hideous Noise fast after spurr'd the Knight;
She heard and stay'd, and thus her Words begin;
What Haste hast thou? Ride softly; take thy Breath;
What bringest thou? he answer'd—War and Death.

"And War and Death, quoth she, here may'st thou get,
If thou for Battle come; with that she stay'd:
Tancred to Ground his Foot in Haste down set,
And left his Steed; on Foot he saw the Maid;

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Their Courage hot, their Ire and Wrath they whet,
And either Champion drew a trenchant Blade;
Together run they and together struck,
Like two fierce Bulls whom Rage and Love provoke.

"Shame bred Desire a sharp Revenge to take,
And Vengeance taken gave new Cause of Shame;
So that with Haste and little Heed they strake;
Fuel enough they had to feed the Flame;
At last so close their Battle fierce they make
They could not wield their Swords; so nigh they came
They us'd the Hilts, and each on other rush'd,
And Helm 'gainst Helm, and Shield 'gainst Shield they crush'd."

There are in Fairfax's translation 1,917 stanzas, of which those just quoted are in the matter of verse construction fair representatives. It will be noticed that, in marked contrast with those of Spenser, they are free from the breathless overflow so common in Elizabethan poetry, and the expression of thought rests naturally and almost invariably with the completion of each unrhymed couplet, or of a single verse. Examination of the poem will show that this restraint is not occasional but constant, and will compel the conclusion that Fairfax was deliberate and purposeful in its employment. If this be true he is alone among the poets of Elizabeth's time to use this style of verse construction in a poem of great length.

The simplicity of Fairfax and his restraint are even more marked when brought in comparison with the looseness of the verses of Daniel, from whose "Civil War" the following part of the description of the death of Talbot are taken:

"So much true resolution wrought in those
Who had made covenant with death before,
That their small number (scorning so great foes)
Made France most happy, that there were no more,
And Fortune doubt to whom she might dispose
That weary day; or unto whom restore
The glory of a contest dearly bought,
Which scarce the conqueror could think well got.

"For as with equal rage and equal might,
Two adverse winds combat with billows proud,
And neither yield (seas, skies maintain like fight,
Wave against wave oppos'd, and cloud to cloud);
So war both sides with obstinate despite,
With like revenge; and neither party bow'd;
Fronting each other with confounding blows,
No wound one sword unto the other owes."

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Compared with Daniel, Fairfax is lucidity itself: and if, as Dryden says, Waller owned that he derived the harmony of his numbers from the "Godfrey of Bulloign," and if Waller was so captivated by that poem that he learned it by heart and used to repeat large portions of it, is it hard to believe that it strongly influenced his own composition? That the talented young man whose great wealth permitted him to indulge his taste in the study of the poets and the inditing of courtly verses recognized in his favorite and master a departure from the style of the older poets? And, seeing its great merit—that it kept the poet from obscurity and cumbrous sentences—he deliberately imitated Fairfax?

But Waller did not employ the stanza of Fairfax. He composed his chief poems in the heroic couplet. The attempt has been made to show why he did so; let us see whether he may not have acquired some of his dexterity in framing his couplets, as he had probably acquired his taste for lucidity and simplicity from Fairfax. Here are some characteristic couplets from Waller's poems:

"Ships heretofore in Seas like Fishes sped,
The mightiest still upon the smallest fed.

"He rent the Crown from vanquisht Henry's Head,
Raised the white Rose and trampl'd on the red.

"They Roses seem which in their early Pride
But half reveal and half their Beauties hide.

"So proud a Fabric to Devotion given,
As once it threat'neth and obligeth Heaven."

Compare with these couplets, which excited the admiration of Waller's contemporaries and successors on the English Parnassus, the following used by Fairfax in closing his stanzas:

"Thus he appear'd, and thus be 'gan to teach,
In Shape an Angel, and, a God in speech.

"A worthy End fit for a Man of Fame
Who dying slew, and conquer'd overcame.

"They make this Fortune who are stout and wise;
Wit rules the Heav'ns, Discretion rules the Skies.

"And make your Hearts resolv'd in all Assays
To win with Honor and to die with Praise."

Are such strong resemblances merely accidental? It might well be so if such couplets were few, but many may be culled from

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the Elizabethan poet's work of strong, unmistakable family resemblance to those of the younger writer, and now and then may be found one which in sententiousness, simplicity and swing is strongly akin to Addison's or Pope's. How very far in advance of the usual Elizabethan couplet Fairfax's are, let these of old Chapman's tell:

> "Thus charg'd he: nor Algicides deni'd,
> But to his feet his fair wing'd shoes he ti'd,
> Ambrosian, golden; that in his command
> Put either sea, or the unmeasur'd land,
> With pace as steady as a puff of wind."

If the facts which have been presented are sufficient to establish the theory of the writer, these conclusions must be drawn:

First, the revolution of taste in the seventeenth century and the rise of the classical school of poetry was an independent, native movement unaffected in its beginnings by a similar movement in France.

Second, that it was largely if not entirely due to the political and religious controversies which absorbed public attention, turned English writers into pamphleteers and created a national relish for didactic composition.

Third, that, as a result of this new English mood, the heroic couplet became the natural and popular medium of poetic expression, and that it was reformed by Waller, who had learned the art of restrained and lucid writing from the Elizabethan, Edward Fairfax.

But did Fairfax write wholly from inspiration and without a model? Probably not, although it may be difficult to trace the influences by which he may have been affected. Spenser most probably was the master of Fairfax—we know little about the poet which we may rely upon as certain—as Chaucer was Spenser's; and if, as conjectured, Spenser's "Muiopotmos" was studied by Fairfax when he was composing his own stanzas, it may be that he there learned to avoid the overflow; for certain of its stanzas are as restrained as any of Fairfax's and stand in strong contrast with those quoted above.

The conclusions arrived at raise the question: How is the curious fact that there existed in France and England two literary movements almost identical in character but wholly in-

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dependent, to be accounted for? Mr. Gosse contented himself with the supposition that the spirit of reform was "in the air." As a matter of fact, not only a spirit of reform, but a spirit of liberty was in the air, and the same social and spiritual unrest was agitating the French and English alike. The long religious wars which tore France into factions and ceased only when Henry IV, the Protestant leader, mounted the throne, and the bitter political struggles between the nobles and the two cardinals were doing for France exactly what the Puritan and political movements did for England. In France, too, a sceptical philosophy arose, and the democratic impulse, suppressed during the long and brilliant reign of Louis XIV, was to result as in England, but long afterward, in a bloody revolution and a republic. As the same influences affected English letters, so we may believe they affected literature in France.

WILLIAM W. GAY.

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NEW ZEALAND: ITS PROBLEMS AND POLICY.

BY THE RIGHT HON. SIR ROBERT STOUT, CHIEF JUSTICE OF NEW ZEALAND, AND THE RIGHT HON. SIR JOSEPH GEORGE WARD, PRIME MINISTER OF NEW ZEALAND.

NEW ZEALAND.

If one is to judge by newspaper and magazine articles, and by the frequent visits of American and European economic experts to New Zealand, this Dominion has attained some celebrity as a place of social experiments. To the New-Zealander this position of New Zealand does not loom large in his conception of his country. We have made social experiments. What their result may be will require many years of trial to show. But if you ask a New-Zealander about his country, he will not boast of these experiments, nor perhaps even mention them. The New-Zealander loves his country, and he will tell you that it is a country of beauty and of most varied scenery. It has the mountains of Switzerland, the fiords of Norway, the lakes and islands of Finland, the woods of Canada and the plains of Central Europe. It has, in short, every variety of physical feature. It has one of the most healthy climates in the world, and it has everything suitable for the greatest and highest enjoyment of life. It has a history, too; and its flora and fauna are in many respects unique. Its aboriginal inhabitants are not excelled by those of America or of other parts of the world in which white races have come in contact with men and women of a different color.

The area of New Zealand, including the surrounding islands, is 104,471 square miles—that is, about the size of the following States: New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Delaware, Maryland and Vermont. There are only four States in the United States larger than New Zealand, viz: California, Texas, Montana and Nevada. The United Kingdom

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of Great Britain and Ireland only exceeds it in extent by about 17,000 square miles. It has a considerable stretch of territory, for it consists of two large, long-shaped islands, lying between 34 and 47 degrees of south latitude. Its coast-line, through the indentations of fiords and bays and harbors, is some thousands of miles in extent. It has in the far north a sub-tropical climate, whilst in the south its climate resembles that of the south of England. It is a well-watered country, having in both the North and South Islands high mountains and long ranges, the mountains in the North Island being lower in height than those in the South. Its highest mountain in the South, Aorangi, or Mount Cook, ascends to the height of 12,349 feet; in the North Island the highest mountain, Ruapehu, is a little over 9,000 feet high. There are very large glaciers; in the South Island, the Tasman glacier covering an area of about 14,000 acres. This is larger than the Alletsch glacier in Switzerland. Norway's fiords do not equal the New Zealand sounds. Milford Sound, for example, is long and narrow; near the head of the sound it is more than 200 fathoms deep, with mountains rising almost precipitously from the water's edge to a height of 6,000 feet. It is also a country of lakes, especially in the South Island. It has also a large thermal district more than 100 miles in length, where geysers, hot springs, etc., are continually met with. For scenery, there is perhaps no country in the world that has such variety and such beauty; and if it be remembered that the heats of summer are never excessive nor the colds of winter, that all round the sea-coast and over more than half of the North Island snow is never seen, whilst in the South Island snow does not lie on the lower grounds except occasionally in winter for a few hours, and that the frosts are never excessive, it will be seen that it possesses a pleasant and equable climate. It is not subject to the droughts that occur in Australia, and yet it is a country of blue skies and sunshine. The instruments that have registered the sun's hours at Gisborne, Napier, Nelson and Christchurch show that the average sunshine is between fifty and sixty per cent. of the possible sunshine. This is a higher average than in Italy.

Let me state some of the things that have been done to show how some public affairs are managed in New Zealand, and from these may be gathered the aims of its people. The population of New Zealand is small. It has not as many people as

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one of the larger cities of the United States. Its estimated population on the 31st of December, 1906, was 968,797. This included about 60,000 aboriginals and inhabitants of the Pacific Islands annexed to New Zealand. It may be, therefore, that what may be successful with such a limited population may not suit other countries. Being far removed from other countries and near what may be termed the centre of the water hemisphere, we are in a unique position for making social experiments. Australia is 1,200 miles away, and to the east, save the islands that dot the Pacific, there is no land between us and America, which is three weeks distant by steamer.

The first contrast that may be made with other countries is that the Government has kept control of what may be termed "the franchises." It controls large quantities of land. It is the owner of all our railways, and the principal hot springs in the thermal regions are Government property. In the municipalities, the tramways are with one exception owned by the cities in which they are operated. The gas-works and water-works and electric lighting are general municipal property. We have municipal theatres; and the tendency is to increase State action where in most other countries private enterprise is left uncontrolled. We have a Public Trust Office that acts for private persons as trustee, as executor of wills and as administrator of intestate estates; it had recently four and a half million pounds' worth of property and money under its control. The fight of which one reads for the granting of "franchises" in State and municipal life in the United States is unknown amongst us. The doctrine of "eminent domain" in lands is not only recognized but acted upon, for the Government every year is taking large areas of land from private persons, paying to them compensation therefor according to its value, and subdividing these areas into small allotments and offering them for lease to settlers. The Government also in many instances directly constructs its railways without the intervention of a contractor.

One of the experiments that have led to much discussion outside of New Zealand is the Arbitration Act, or the mode of settling differences between employers and employed as to wages and labor conditions. It cannot be said that strikes have been entirely abolished, for on several occasions the awards of the Court have not been acted upon by the workmen. Strikes have

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been minimized, and the price of labor has been ascertained not by contract but by "status" through the decision of the Court. Perhaps the benefit of the Arbitration Act has been mainly the creation of a public opinion by deciding what it is fair or right for the employers to pay to the workmen.

Our people generally are a law-abiding people, and so far as crime is concerned, especially serious crime, perhaps there is no part of the world freer from criminal taint. The sanctity of human life is felt and realized, and we read with surprise how criminal procedure in the United States differs from our own. No crime where the criminal is caught goes unpunished for any length of time if the jury convicts the accused. The postponement of a trial to a period more than three or four months after the arrest of a criminal is unknown; and, if there is an appeal to the Appeal Court in a criminal case, the matter is settled within a month or two after the trial. Our Court of Appeal meets three times a year, and there are no remnants. The prisoner has six peremptory challenges on a jury's being empanelled; and challenges for cause, such as seem to take place at almost every criminal trial in America, are almost unknown. During my forty years' connection with the legal profession, I have known of only two challenges for cause and those occurred twenty years apart. I have never heard of the empanelment of any jury in any criminal trial in New Zealand taking more than twenty minutes. If there is at any time a delay even in bringing civil cases to a final determination in the Court of Appeal, the parties themselves are responsible for it. Justice is not delayed in this Dominion.

It may be asked, How stands the wealth of the country, its productions? and its intellectual life? I propose to say a few words about these. First, as to the wealth of New Zealand. As our railways and a considerable area of our lands are Government property, our private wealth cannot be fairly compared with that of other countries. In England, America and elsewhere, the railways, tramways, etc., are privately owned. That is not the case with us. Our total private wealth on the 31st of December, 1905, was estimated at £258,710,000, or, according to the population existing at that date, about £300 per head. Our public wealth, consisting of Crown lands, local authorities' lands, educational lands, church lands, etc., along with the Govern-

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ment railways, telegraphs, light-houses, harbor and water-works, amounted to about £62,000,000, making altogether nearly £321,000,000 of wealth in our country, and if the valuation had been made on the 31st of December, 1907, there would have been a very large increase, for land has risen in value very much during the last two years, mainly through the increased prices of our products. Though we have this large amount of private wealth, we have no millionaires among us, and it is hoped we shall never produce that class of settler. We are yet mainly a pastoral people and our stock reports show that we have in round numbers 20,000,000 sheep, nearly 2,000,000 cattle, about 350,000 horses, 250,000 pigs and over 3,000,000 poultry. We have not developed what may be called the higher manufactures to the same extent as older countries, but we have over four thousand establishments, omitting Government railway workshops and printing-offices, and over 56,000 persons engaged in factories, the wages paid being about £4,500,000 a year.

As to the training of intellect, we have made very adequate provision. Every district has a State elementary school. Education is free, compulsory and secular. The number of schools of all kinds, including private schools, at the end of 1905 was 2,148, with 4,868 instructors, and 157,000 pupils. There were, in addition, native schools, that is, Maori or aboriginal schools, numbering 105, with 6,515 scholars. Of secondary schools—including College, Grammar or High Schools, aided or endowed—there are twenty-seven in the Dominion. There are four University Colleges—one in Auckland, one in Wellington, one in Christchurch and one in Dunedin. There is a medical school in Dunedin; there are two mining schools—one in Auckland and one in Dunedin; an engineering school and a school of agriculture in Canterbury, and a school of music in Auckland and in Canterbury, whilst the University Colleges provide for the teaching of arts, sciences and law. There are also several private theological colleges. The University of New Zealand is an examining body, granting degrees and awarding scholarships. In every town of any size there are the usual societies for mental and physical culture. Friendly Societies are well represented throughout the Colony, and they do not seem to have decreased, though we have an old-age pension scheme by which every one who has attained sixty-five years of age and has lived twenty-five years in the

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Colony is entitled to a pension of ten shillings a week if he is not in receipt of any income. If he is in receipt of an income not exceeding £52 pounds a year, his pension may be somewhat reduced according to the income that he receives. The amount spent on old-age pensions last year was about £320,000. The New Zealand people are said to be fond of amusements and sports, and they have proved their ability to play football and cricket. They have many other pastimes; and, as the main rivers have been stocked with trout, and deer have been acclimatized, there is no country where sport is so popular.

In order to prevent the accumulation of land in the hands of a few, we have passed a drastic land-tax law, the provisions of which are as follows: a tax for a year by way of ordinary land-tax is one penny in the pound. But, in addition to this, we have the graduated land-tax, by which, where the total unimproved value of all the land of the taxpayer is not less than £5,000, but is less than £7,000, he has to pay an additional one-sixteenth of a penny in the pound on the total unimproved value. If his property is not under £7,000, but is under £9,000, of unimproved value, he has to pay an additional two-sixteenths of a penny in the pound as his graduated tax, this, as in the other case, being payable on the total unimproved value. Each £2,000 means that he has to pay graduated tax added to by one-sixteenth of a penny in the pound, the tax being payable always on the total unimproved value. This goes on up to £15,000, and from there the sixteenth is added for every £2,500 up to £30,000. From £30,000 to £40,000 it is added for each £5,000. Properties between £40,000 and £41,000 are taxed at the rate of eight shillings for every £100 of unimproved value. For every £1,000 over £40,000, the percentage is increased by one-fifth of a shilling, the tax so assessed being payable, as before, over the total unimproved value. If the land was not "business premises," as defined by the Act, it would be taxed at twenty-five per cent. more than the percentage of eight shillings in the £100, and the graduated tax on farm land worth £40,000 would thus be £200, or a total of £366-13-4. A property worth £80,000 would pay sixteen shillings in the £100, or, if not business premises, twenty shillings in the £100. The graduated tax on a farm property the unimproved value of which was £80,000 would thus be £800. This is four times the graduated tax on £40,000, whereas

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the ordinary tax would be only twice as much. The graduated tax reaches its maximum at £200,000, the percentage being then two pounds, *plus,* of course, the twenty-five per cent. additional for other than business premises. Absentees pay an extra fifty per cent., and to escape being taxed as an absentee one must have been at least half of the time in New Zealand during the preceding four years. No disposition is effective so long as possession is retained, and there are provisions regarding mortgages to prevent evasion of the tax.

It will, therefore, be apparent that the Government is trying to promote small settlement in two ways—first, by compulsorily purchasing the land of large owners, subdividing and leasing it for long terms of years, with right of renewal, in small areas; second, by discouraging the holding of large blocks through the imposition of the graduated tax.

New Zealand has followed older countries in factory legislation, restricting the hours of work and insisting on proper sanitary provisions for the factories, etc. If the factory legislation, coupled with the decisions of the Arbitration Court on the conditions of labor, were examined, it would be found that New Zealand perhaps provides for shorter hours of labor than any country in the world, and its wages are certainly not less than those paid in any country in the world. There are many social reforms that have been aimed at. We have dealt with the criminal class by the First Offenders' Probation Act and the Habitual Criminals Act. The First Offenders' Act provides that a person, on committing a first crime, if of previous good character, is not imprisoned, but is let out on probation under strict conditions. This Act has been a great success; no less than eighty-four per cent. of persons treated under it have not subsequently come before any Court for any offence. Of the remaining sixteen per cent. five and one-half per cent. were rearrested, two and one-half per cent. absconded, seven and one-half per cent. are still under probation and the balance account for deaths and being in hospital. The Habitual Criminals Act declares that, if a person is convicted a certain number of times, he may be declared a habitual criminal, and he is not released from gaol until it is proved that he is likely to be free from crime for the future.

New Zealand has dealt with the alcoholic question, for it

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has a local option law, by which every three years on general election day a vote is taken as to whether licenses are to continue or to be refused or to be reduced. A majority of the electors can reduce licenses. If three-fifths of those who vote cast their ballots for no license, then no license can be issued in that electoral district. There are several districts in the Colony in which no license can be issued.

We have in New Zealand a country with a temperate climate, of much physical beauty and with everything to produce a stalwart race of people. The people are mainly British in origin and have come of good stock. So far the young of the race seem to be as strong and stalwart, especially in the South Island, as their ancestors; and, though those in the extreme north have not the ruddy color of those further south, they do not seem lacking in enterprise and physical ability. It is too early yet to dogmatize about what the future of the race may be, or how they may vary from their ancestors of the Mother-Land or from their kindred in other colonies. The New-Zealander looks, however, to the future with every hope that his race will not be behind any of the other white races of the world.

ROBERT STOUT.

NEW ZEALAND AS IT IS.

IN a world where, for social and political reasons, false issues are continually being presented to the public for acceptance, it may be well at times to give authoritative statements even of a general character to those who wish to have some solid ground on which to base their opinions. This is particularly the case in regard to New Zealand. Its isolated position in a geographical sense and its almost unique position in regard to social economics make it desirable that strangers should be able to select from the cloudy mass of assertion and counter-assertion statements bearing the signet of those who are in a position to be responsible for their utterances.

New Zealand has lately felt stress from two distinct forces bearing upon her from long distances. She has been affected financially (though in comparatively slight degree) by the depression-waves which the Wall Street panic sent outward in wide circles far beyond the United States. She has also been disturbed by

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the vague, but serious, unrest which agitates the ranks of the workers in all civilized countries, and which is felt even where the lot of the workers has been ameliorated in a hundred considerate and sympathetic ways. In spite, however, of these temporary vibrations (having their origins beyond seas), the Dominion of New Zealand was never in a more prosperous condition than now, and never gave more solid ground for the certain hope in her future which those who love her cherish.

It is said by enemies, within and without our island boundaries, that we borrow too largely, and that our National Debt is increasing. They are careful, however, to conceal the fact that a very large proportion of our loan-money is accepted for reproductive purposes — that is to say, for purposes which benefit both the lender and the borrower. Since the "Progressive Ministry" came into power until recently, from 1891 to 1908, we have borrowed $138,000,000. Out of that sum, however, $91,000,000 is invested in interest-bearing securities or interest-bearing activities, the cost of which does not fall upon the general taxpayer. Therefore it is idle to talk of this amount as if through it the ordinary citizen is bending under a burden of taxation; the loan-moneys when expended have been disbursed in such directions that the citizen of New Zealand walks cheerfully and alertly, knowing that his light load is like that of some farmer carrying the small sack of seed-corn that will enable him and his children to reap the harvest of the future. Twenty and a half million dollars have been paid to provide struggling settlers and farmers with cheap money, money raised at low interest on the national security, and loaned to farmers to allow them to throw off strangling mortgages and to improve their properties. They pay their small interest gladly, very gladly, and no part falls on the general taxpayer. So, too, under "Lands for Settlement," big private estates have been bought by the Government out of money expressly loaned for this purpose and on the security of such lands themselves. The interest on these loans is paid from the lease rents of small farmers now settled on what were once the princely properties of single individuals. Twenty-nine and a half million dollars have been thus expended. Not only does the whole country benefit indirectly by the settlement and growth of thousands of such families, but no part of the interest is paid by the general citizen. I could extend this statement in detail till the whole of the

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ninety-one millions spoken of is accounted for; but it must be acknowledged that, when New Zealand is called a borrowing country, sufficient credit is not generally given to the fact that much of the interest is self-supporting and will in a short time automatically disappear by means of sinking-funds.

In the years during which our Progressive Ministry has held power, the exports rose from $47,000,470 in 1891 to $89,201,730 in 1906; the imports from $32,519,245 in 1891 to $76,057,015 in 1906. That fact alone would show the great energy and prosperity of a people that only in 1907 for the first time raised its number to a million inhabitants. The general welfare of the people cannot thoroughly be gauged by any show of figures, because much of it arises from indirect influences guided by State impulses. Thus, as soon as the railways and other State-owned properties pay above a certain interest on their construction, instead of such gains being handed over to private persons as dividends, the general public benefits by greatly reduced fares and freights. Thus the railway journey (second class) of 250 miles, which in 1900 cost six dollars, in 1908 cost only $3.50. A bale of wool was carried one hundred miles in 1890 for $1.78, but in 1908 for $1.34; and there are special concessions as to the transport of artificial manures, etc., for farmers. Such is the case also with the post-office, telegraphs, telephones and other means of communication. A letter weighing half an ounce sent from New Zealand to Great Britain in 1890 cost twelve cents; in 1908 a full ounce letter could be sent to any English-speaking country for two cents. Yet, although this Colony was the first to try the daring experiment of a two-cent postage all over the world, our post-office handed over $653,070 last year to the Treasury and during the last ten years yielded $3,865,000 of profits. We have bank deposits as follows:

	1897.	1902.	1907.
In the banks.....	$71,452,560	$86,158,835	$117,585,555
In the savings-banks....	27,600,400	39,384,385	64,125,315
Total	$99,052,960	$125,543,220	$181,710,870

I am aware that much of the interest taken in regard to New Zealand by our cousins in the United States centres round our advanced Labor Laws, and particularly round the principle known as "compulsory arbitration." The past session of Parliament has

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had probably its most severe task in endeavoring to lift the law of industrial arbitration to a higher level than it had previously occupied. We found that it was with great difficulty that legislative pronouncement could fix with lasting effect any system applying fairly to so flexible and liquid a subject as modern industry. The Act passed in 1894 had for about twelve years a strong influence for good. It so modified the conditions of employer and worker that great benefits were received by both parties. As time went on, it was found that there was too great rigidity in the legal process. Dissatisfaction was widely expressed, and the long-banished strike began to rear its unwholesome head once more. Too much stress had gradually been laid on the compulsory portion of the Act, and too little attention given to conciliation. The new statute endeavors to "get back to conciliation." For this purpose official conciliators are being appointed to settle trade disputes in their earliest stages if possible, or with the aid of a Council of Conciliation appointed by the contending parties. This Council has no judicial powers; it is purely conciliatory, and only on its failure does the case proceed to the Arbitration Court. Strikes and lockouts involving industrial unions registered under the Act are made punishable by fine and by attachment of part of wages, but strikes of persons not working under award or industrial agreement are without penalty. We trust that by means of these amendments of the Act the primal intention of its promoters may be restored, viz.: to make compulsion a last resource and one only to be invoked under rare and extreme circumstances.

The progress of many of our State-governed institutions has been remarkable. Government railways, telegraphs, telephones, coal-mines, life-insurance, accident-insurance, fire-insurance, public trusteeship, old-age pensions, savings-banks, state pensions for all Government employees, etc., have all been successful and flourishing ventures not only from the financial point of view, but from their effect on the comfort and happiness of the people. We hope still to find many ways of perfecting these, and of finding out new paths of usefulness, feeling as untrammelled in the adoption of the best ideas of other countries as we are ready to try new lines of action of our own if they appear to lead in the direction of the star we steer by.

JOSEPH GEORGE WARD.

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A FALSE SEX EMPHASIS.

BY ANNA CADOGAN ETZ.

MAN has assumed from the beginning that the nature of woman was something quite foreign to the nature of man. As this assumption was one of his earliest, it has also been the one to which he has clung with the most tenacity. Science has been able to set him right on other mistaken hypotheses, but as to the nature of woman his vision seems clouded with a perpetual haze. He admits with candor that a female oak must be an oak, that a male ivy must be an ivy. But he is conscious of no treason to the facts of natural history in persistently reiterating that the relation between woman and man is that of the ivy to the oak.

When men judge men, the conditions under which they work and live are recognized as important factors in moulding their characters, but in judging women any observed difference from the known characteristics of men is at once ascribed to sex, and the question is not asked, Would not the economic conditions which have controlled the lives of women produce similar traits of character in any class regardless of sex? Two necessary prerequisites of a correct understanding of this question are seldom studied with an impartial mind: the first is the history of the relation of the sexes from the beginning of civilization, and the other is the limitations of the power of sexual selection as compared with the forces of natural selection and heredity.

There are certain basic facts concerning the action of sexual selection which serve to discredit the general assumption that the known differences in mind and temperament of men and women are due to the differences in sex. The exhaustive researches of Darwin led him to these conclusions: that sexual selection among mammals works with uniformity; that it is the male who usually departs from the standard as the result of this force; that as con-

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cerns man, it operated only in remote ages; that throughout the whole mammalian world equal transmission of character has prevailed; that otherwise, it is probable, man would have been as superior in mental endowment to woman as the peacock is in ornamental plumage to the hen.

The combination of sexual selection as the initial force with the principle of equal transmission works strange transformations. Man was originally a hairy animal. In the process of denudation the female led the way as the result of sex selection. The effect of heredity is seen in a race tending toward a hairless condition, and in regard to one aspect, man in the lead. Even the superior strength of man, which he acquired as the result of sex selection (the strongest male defeating his rivals and securing the best female) and which caused the initial subjugation of woman, is on a fair way to obliteration in these athletic days. In any assembly there are to be seen numbers of women larger than the average man. Indeed, this superiority has always been at the mercy of the conditions of life. Men prate of weakness as a strictly feminine attribute. The Indian, who in primitive times sauntered along burdened only with the weapon which belonged to his epoch, noted no such sex attribute in the squaw who trudged behind him carrying all the baggage, lodge poles and cooking utensils to their new camping-place. The Eskimo, who uses a light man's boat while the women man the heavy freight and passenger boats, talks not of weakness as a feminine attribute. The peasant woman of Europe, who tills the soil so that the flower of European manhood can form the armed neutrality of that Continent, exists in defiance of this theory of feminine weakness.

The superior strength of man has been exploited in the interests of war; but in the development of the industries of the world the woman, who originated them and carried them on during dreary centuries, has, as the result of natural selection, that is—in adapting herself to the conditions of life—been required by stern necessity to develop a strength and certainly a power of endurance by no means inferior.

The Spartan women of ancient times, as well as the athletic product of our women's colleges, teach the lesson of the feebleness of the powers of sexual selection as compared to the wonderful adaptability of the human body in its responsiveness to the conditions of life—in which respect there is no sex distinction.

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That immortality itself was a sex attribute was a mooted question for many centuries. The possession of a mind strong enough to stand a college education was considered a sex attribute no longer than half a century ago, and in these times, when opportunities utilized have proved the female mind no less strong than that inhabiting a masculine cranium, women's brains are accredited with a difference in quality necessitating a difference in mental diet, though as yet the male and female stomach is considered able to digest the same material.

As in response to equal opportunity, women have successively proved themselves equal with men in physical and mental powers; as the point of difference is perforce shifted, but is still insisted on as existing; as with the disappearance of each distinction there is still no suspension of the ardor with which the point is maintained—queer marvel is it of an illogical world that the real distinction is seldom sighted and never estimated at its full significance.

'Way back in the obscurity of savage life before the dawn of civilization this was the sex distinction: he was strong, she was useful; therefore, he took her for his own. She was the first slave, she was the first thing he ever owned; and he has relinquished her piecemeal and with the greatest reluctance. The distinction between a piece of property and its owner is indeed vital, and in adjusting themselves to the conditions of life, as stated in those terms, remarkable differences were sure to arise. The completeness of her serviture and its maintenance down to such recent times would prove powerful enough to stamp marked traits on both male and female characters. She could be counted on to acquire slave qualities; and the rapid intuition, the quickness of perception, the zeal for self-effacement—in short, all the so-called virtues, as well as vices, which have been placed to her credit throughout the long ages, what are they but the inevitable outcome of a slave status? The happiness and comfort of a slave depend upon the quickness with which he reads the mood of his master and the rapidity with which he perceives the course adapted to his pleasure. Why should not women be enmeshed in a love of personalities when the person nearest held their life and happiness in the hollow of his hand? Why should principles of abstract justice appeal to the feminine character? What has justice ever done for her? Of generosity her life may

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have been full to overflowing, but of justice—she has seldom been the object to which it has been applied. Her attitude toward it might consistently resemble the Irishman's, who, when solicited to take out an insurance policy through consideration for posterity, replied: "Posterity! Sure, and what has posterity ever done for me?"

To talk with learned unction of sex selection and differentiation may gladden the ear and befog the mind, but traits that would be the inevitable outcome of an economic condition wherever found need no elaborate biological explanation. The selfishness which even Darwin bewails as the unfortunate sex distinction of the male human animal, what is it but the natural outcome of centuries of domination? With such an opportunity the female could have been counted on to assume the world as her own preserve in exactly a similar manner. His ambition which Darwin likewise attributes to his sex inheritance, what is it but the result of opportunities for gratification? Why should the female, for whom aspirations could have no legitimate realization, save in devotion to the comfort and welfare of her family, develop ambition? Was she not ever drilled in all that is implied in the old adage, "The happiest women have no history"? What a world of meaning is contained in John Wesley's advice to his wife, "Be content to be a private and insignificant person known and loved by God and me." If "God and me" were the powers that alone offered hope of reward for zeal and faithful service, "God and me" could be counted on to be the objects of woman's devotion, and consequently a large part of the history of women is but a record of faithful service to husband or father and the church. Who dare say that this is the outcome of her nature, since she never has been offered that liberty of choice that alone would indicate a following of nature's promptings.

There is one brilliant exception to the universal habit of the mind of man being utterly befogged when it discusses the nature of woman. As the result of an inherited logical mind and the severest early training no sophistry, no prejudice, could ever obscure the truth from the piercing eye of John Stuart Mill. He saw and fearlessly proclaimed nothing in the mental and moral eccentricities of the female character but the inevitable outcome of the force of circumstance. He aptly compared the case of woman to that of a plant some of whose shoots are forced and

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some are heaped with ice and left to die; and he declared that men, with the inability to recognize their own hand-work which distinguishes the unanalytic mind, indolently believe that the tree grows of itself in the way they have made it grow, and that it would die if one half were not kept in a vapor bath and the other half in the snow.

John Stuart Mill was naturally precocious and was trained in logic at the age that the normal boy is devoting himself to marbles. But this concentration of all the forces of his life in tracing phenomena to their causes and causes to their inevitable consequences seemed none too complete if the nature of woman was to be considered from a basis of pure reason; for Spencer and Darwin, magnificently as they overcame all other obstacles, only saw part of the truth when they referred to this perennially misunderstood subject.

Herbert Spencer admits that the great man is what society has made him, but when he turns to the normal woman he sees through a glass darkly and his logical mind loses its bearings. He recapitulates with unerring accuracy the traits of mind and character that the weaker sex have acquired as the result of dealing for centuries with the stronger, and uses these data to justify his *a priori* inference that as the parental activities are different so will be the mental faculties. If woman had been stronger or man had been just, these regretted limitations would never have existed; all this might have happened without in the least interfering with the sexual activities. In regard to reproducing her species, woman would have been infinitely more successful. If, as Spencer states, she had often to resort to deceit and indirection to save the very lives of herself and offspring, this faculty, developed as the result of necessity, must work with sinister influence on both herself and her children and resulted as a blight on the life of the family, but bore no essential relation to her sexual history.

If women were obliged to reproduce the species against such heavy odds, and even to protect their offspring from the father, the zeal and devotion which women have shown in protecting the interests of children are thus revealed as an inevitable result of their economic history, and are not, as modern writers state with much fulsome compliment, one of the inherent virtues of the feminine nature. Thus one by one we see the boasted virtues

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of the womanly nature traced back to their origin, which was not the essential goodness of her nature, but the result of stern economic necessity. She cared for the family. Why? Because man made her, and if she hadn't the race would have died out. As a sex, her record is one of abstemiousness—not because of her inherent goodness, but as the weaker part she was not allowed the luxuries with which men indulged themselves. She is virtuous. Why? Because man set that standard for her and she had to live up to it.

In regard to the prolonged subjugation of woman the initial cause was, in all probability, the superior strength of man. This, however, is not sufficiently marked to explain the completeness of her subserviency. So abjectly has she grovelled beneath his feet that every attempt made to better the condition of the sex has been bitterly resisted by the vast majority of its members. It is not only the laws on the statute-books that have hampered her and marked her as inferior, but the unwritten and immeasurably more effective laws of custom and prejudice. We are all the slaves of custom, but on woman has fallen the bondage in its heaviest form. Naturally, being human, would she choose to do the customary thing, and inevitably, as the result of her slave status, would she be forced to do the things that her owner thought proper; his opinion being also formed in deference to custom. The original barbarian warrior, therefore, who brought the first captive woman home from battle as a proof that he had been a brave fighter is the only culpable party. After the style was once set, each generation, through the force of precedent, riveted its bonds with increasing intensity on its successor. In those old patriarchal days fathers were not only obeyed, they were worshipped, and how irresistible must have been the force of custom! In our own free and enlightened time, do we not imperil the very lives of our children every Fourth of July? Such is the force of custom. One July, on the 5th, the newspapers feebly commented on the fact that fifty-one children had been killed and over thirty-five hundred injured; but next summer we repeat the experience—such is the force of precedent.

It would seem that even the casual reader of history, as well as the most superficial observer of social conditions, could not fail to find abundant cause for all the peculiar traits exhibited by women without resorting to the threadbare argument of sex.

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Their failure to do so is another instance of the tribute mankind is perpetually laying at the feet of prejudice.

The debatable point that has most staggered biologists has been the extent to which women transmit their acquired traits to their female offspring and how many crumbs from the well-spread table of the father might in the course of inheritance be picked up by the daughter. Spencer, who assumes so much—as a philosopher whose range is every department of human knowledge must—finds in the direct inheritance from mother to daughter a sufficient explanation for all the feminine eccentricities which fell under his rather limited bachelor eye. To concede this point is to abandon all hope; for, however acquired, any female characteristic would wend its way through ages as a blight on the unfortunate sex in which it originated.

Spencer searched until he found the facts which justified his assumption, but Darwin collected with patient toil all accessible data and let the conclusion be what it must. After bringing all the facts of natural history bearing on this mooted question together, he stated the following law as one with known exceptions: Traits acquired after maturity are transmitted to the same sex, but traits acquired before maturity are transmitted equally to both sexes.

This law offers a sufficient explanation for many phenomena otherwise not clear. It explains why women have lagged behind in the progress of the world and yet have not dropped so hopelessly in the rear, as must have been the case had women inherited only from women.

The difference in the education of the sexes in the human family never abates for a moment from the cradle to the grave. The tiniest girl is exhorted to behave in accord with the proprieties that shut her out from the activities open to her brother. All that youth acquires before the age of maturity becomes the inheritance of the race; and thus the manacles which society has imposed on its women, as well as the progress it has instilled into its sons, are equally inherited by both men and women.

The marked ability which women are showing in public work along philanthropic lines in utilizing the power of organization proves nothing, if not that it was a direct inheritance from generations of men. The isolation in which the work of women has always been carried on could develop no such ability for trans-

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mission to posterity. To what an extent the progress of human society has been retarded by the prolonged damming up and diverting of the powers of half the race, it is, of course, impossible to estimate. But at least the lesson is plain for any discriminating observer of social evolution, that most of the so-called sex distinctions between men and women are merely the inevitable consequences resulting from different conditions; and just in proportion as men and women work side by side in the battle of life, submitting to the same handicaps and stimulated by equal opportunity, will the truth emerge; that sex distinctions have been vastly over-emphasized and that the physical differentiation necessary for the propagation of the species is strictly limited in its field and leaves untouched the larger area of human qualities which has been developed in consequence of man being a social animal.

ANNA CADOGAN ETZ.

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THE NEW IRELAND.—XII.

CONCLUSION.

BY SYDNEY BROOKS.

I HAVE written these articles to little purpose if I have not persuaded some, at least, of my readers that the Irish Question is not a question of politics merely. There are many things in Ireland, as I see it, more important than politics. The necessity of completing as speedily as possible the transfer of the title-deeds in the soil from landlord to tenant and of bringing the seven-century-old agrarian struggle to an end, is one of them. The yet more vital necessity of seeing to it that the new proprietors are enabled to maintain themselves in a state of economic independence is another. There is no hope of contentment in Ireland until landlordism is finally abolished. But there is no hope of prosperity in Ireland if the abolition of landlordism means simply the handing over of the soil from one set of incapables to another. I have emphasized this point more than once in the preceding articles. But it is so urgent to the proper understanding of the Irish problem, as it is to-day and as it will be for many years to come, that I am tempted to dwell on it a moment longer. When the policy of land purchase has fulfilled its mission, the Irish agrarian question, as we have known it since the first beginnings of Anglo-Irish relations, will have ceased to exist. Hitherto it has been mainly social and political, a struggle between two classes over rent and ownership. Henceforward it will be mainly technical and economic, a struggle not for possession, but for a livelihood. On the ability of the new proprietors to make farming and stock-raising pay depend the peace and prosperity of the country. At present, as I have before insisted, they are lamentably ill-equipped for a competitive agricultural existence. Taken as a whole, the Irish peasants and

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small farmers have neither the technical skill nor the education nor the capital nor the business experience adequate to their new responsibilities. Large numbers of them are in debt to the local gombeenman; nearly all have been more or less demoralized by long years of agrarian agitation, by the habit of leaning on others and by the lassitude and hopelessness that brood over rural Ireland; they have forgotten what little they or their fathers ever knew about tillage; even as stock-raisers, with every advantage of soil and climate in their favor, they fall miserably below the standards of Argentina and America; and the dreary slovenliness of their mode of life is the despair of social reformers. Yet these are the men who have the future of Ireland in their hands and who represent the ultimate security for the repayment of the loan of $1,000,000,000 advanced, or about to be advanced, by the British Treasury to enable them to become the sole owners of their holdings.

There is a twofold danger in such a situation. The first danger is that just as in the past there have been campaigns against the payment of rents to landlords, so in the future there may be a campaign against the payment of the annuities to the State. It is true that experience so far does not make the risk appear very formidable. Some 75,000 Irish peasants purchased their holdings by the aid of public credit before the Act of 1903 was dreamed of. In very few instances has there been a failure to pay the instalments of the purchase-money punctually. It has been found that the moral and material results of proprietorship both discourage agitation and increase the yield of the land. At this moment those who are in arrears under all the Acts are, I believe, under one per cent. of the total number of purchasers. This is encouraging, but is it quite final? A Government, one must remember, is an unfeeling landlord; it can make no allowances for crop failure or cattle disease; it can listen to no excuses; its transactions are all on a cash, and not a credit, basis. Many of the new proprietors who have been seduced into coming to terms with their landlords by an immediate cancellation of arrears, or by the scarcely less attractive expedient of merging them in the purchase-money, will find, I fear, when a bad year comes, that the annuities they have agreed to pay are wholly beyond their means. In which case what is the Government to do? Wholesale evictions for the non-payment of the annuities would mean

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plunging Ireland into an unthinkable anarchy. No one can feel absolutely sure that the new owners of the soil have not at the back of their minds a half-formed hope that fifteen or twenty years from now they may somehow be able to escape from the payment of their annual instalments. Irish politics will go on, but how can they go on without the agrarian commotion which for nearly forty years has been their life-blood? If the pacification of the peasantry means the depletion of the Nationalist exchequer and the gradual attrition of interest in the Home-Rule movement, may not the politicians feel all the more drawn to some desperate stroke for the recovery of their dwindling influence? And if they do, what course is open to them except to start an agitation against the remittance of the annuities? I am not at all certain that the future of Irish politics may not belong to the party that first forges anew the links that are now being weakened, and indeed severed, between agrarianism and Home Rule. At some period of acute agricultural distress, and making the fullest use of the argument that England has already overtaxed Ireland to an amount exceeding that of the purchase-money advanced, I find it not impossible to imagine a party proclaiming, and enlisting formidable support to carry through, a general strike against the instalments. I do not by any means rate this possibility high, but neither can I altogether exclude it. Were it ever to become near and real, the future of Anglo-Irish relations might rival, might even surpass, the bloody, insensate tragedy of their past.

But there is another, and in some ways a not less disheartening, peril to be faced. It is that the new proprietors may slowly be squeezed by their inefficiency or indebtedness or sloth out of an independent position, and that after dabbling unsuccessfully with stock-raising or exhausting the soil by improvident tillage, they may be forced to sell their lands to the money-lender and the publican. In which case the whole policy of land purchase will have been defeated, the dream of a secure and prospering peasant proprietary will have vanished and a new race of landlords will have been called into existence ten times more avaricious, mean and tyrannical than the worst member of the old type of English absentee. To ward off so hideous a catastrophe seems to me a task of infinitely more moment to Irish welfare than empty wrangling over the machinery of constitutional government. It

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can be warded off if leaders and people keep their vision clear and their will-power active. There is no Irish need more imperative than a sustained and many-sided effort to put the greatest of all Irish industries on a sound footing by translating into terms of positive achievement Sir Horace Plunkett's formula of "better farming, better business and better living." Better farming is primarily a matter of technical instruction; better business depends first and foremost upon the extension of the co-operative movement; better living can be secured only as the result of many diverse agencies working for the reform of domestic economy and the brightening of rural existence.

Here is a vast and beneficent work waiting to be done, one that may well tax all the energy and devotion of which a united Ireland is capable before it can be successfully accomplished. Obviously it is a task which laws made in England and speeches delivered in the House of Commons can do little to further and which can only be carried through by the daily self-sacrificing toil of Irishmen in Ireland. And around this central problem of rehabilitating Irish rural life, morally, materially and socially, are grouped many subsidiary questions. There is, for instance, the question of promoting both village and major industries and of thus doing something to check the tide of emigration. This in its turn is partly a question of technical education and partly, indeed chiefly, of character, discipline, confidence and public tranquillity. The opportunities for industrial expansion in Ireland far exceed the aptitudes of the people for profiting by them. It is, indeed, on the face of it an amazing anomaly that a mainly agricultural country, with over $300,000,000 lying idle in her banks, and her enormous wealth of cattle, sheep and pigs, should be importing every year over $8,000,000 of boots and shoes, $800,000 of soap, $500,000 of candles, $500,000 of woollen goods, $1,800,000 of butter, $1,500,000 of artificial manures and $5,000,000 of agricultural machinery. Intimately bound up with the industrial problem is the question of furnishing a cheap, rapid and co-ordinated system of transit and communication. There are in Ireland some 4,500 miles of railway track, divided among no less than seventeen principal companies and presided over by at least twenty-six boards of directors. The rolling-stock is inadequate, freight rates for merchandise are more than a third higher than in England and increase with the years, passenger fares are

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still more excessive, the whole system is ill connected and unenterprising, and the preferential through rates and the strangling of canal competition have made the Irish railways almost as much the enemies as the friends of Irish progress. No country so palpably awaits material betterment. In the extension and wholesale reformation of her railways, in the improvement of harbors and the building of piers, in the reclamation of her million and a half acres of waste land, in the development of a broad system of arterial drainage and in reafforestation there is ample scope and reward for constructive enterprise of a kind that the grant of Home Rule or the withholding of Home Rule is powerless to affect. And overtopping all these problems there are the supreme questions of national character and of national education—of how to instil into the Irish people those qualities of moral hardihood in which they are lacking and of how to rescue their mental development from a cramping, clerical domination.

Emphatically, therefore, the Irish Question is not all politics, and those Americans who think they have solved it by recommending that Ireland should be treated as though she were a State in the American Union have yet, in my judgment, to master its alphabet. Nevertheless, to the entire outside world, and probably also to the majority of Englishmen, the essence of the Irish problem is contained in advocacy of, or antagonism to, Home Rule. As I have argued before, and as I shall argue again a little later on, I believe this view to be incomplete and mistaken. The Constitutional issue is undoubtedly a part and an essential part of the Irish Question, but it is not and cannot be the whole of it; and while I am personally convinced that it ought to be decided, and eventually will be decided, in the way the majority of Irishmen desire, I am not less sure that Home Rule is no panacea and that it will leave unsettled as many problems as it solves. For all present purposes, however, the matter is one of merely academic interest. Home Rule, as a legislative possibility, is considerably further off to-day than it was in 1886. I cannot persuade myself that the Liberals will again make it a part of their programme, and even if they did, no one could for a moment doubt that the House of Lords would reject any measure of Home Rule that was comprehensive enough to satisfy the Nationalist party. Thus the question of Home Rule is permanently postponed to the question of the House of Lords and the signs are few and faint that

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the British people really desire any alteration in the constitutional powers of the Upper House or are willing, under whatever safeguards of delay, to allow a chance majority in the House of Commons to pass into law whatever measures they pleased. The Conservatives, it is true, are released from the fear that their Bills may be mutilated or rejected by the Lords, but then what chance is there that the Conservatives will abandon the one plank in their platform which has never shifted in the last five-and-twenty years and consent to adopt the Nationalist view of Irish affairs? Frankly I see no chance whatever. Even when it is made clear beyond the possibility of doubt that Tariff Reform—the first constructive item on the Conservative programme—can only be carried by the help of the Irish vote, I do not believe that the Conservatives will agree to any compact or alliance that involves, as one of its terms, the setting up of a legislative assembly in Dublin. It is, indeed, conceivable that Home Rule may come as part of a general scheme for easing the Imperial Parliament of some of its overwhelming burdens and for resolving the United Kingdom into a sort of federated monarchy in which Englishmen, Irishmen, Scotchmen and Welshmen would exercise a separate and equal control over their own local affairs. But this is a development which lies too far off, even if it ever comes at all, to be worth discussing to-day. Yet short of some such heroic transformation I discern little or no prospect of a Home-Rule Bill being again introduced into the House of Commons. It is, indeed, scarcely too much to say that the idea of settling or attempting to settle this part of the Irish question at a single stroke has been abandoned by all responsible politicians. The Liberals made the effort in 1886 and they suffered, in consequence, nearly twenty years of banishment. They are not likely to repeat it. That what is compendiously known as the Irish Question can only be grappled with piecemeal fashion, by taking one step at a time and by resisting the temptation of large and revolutionary schemes, and that Home Rule will not be so much granted as evolved—evolved from the progressive devolution of purely Irish business to purely Irish bodies—may now, in my judgment, be accepted as axioms of British politics.

If this view, as I believe it to be, is well founded, it is clearly unnecessary for me to enter at any length into the arguments for or against the Home-Rule Bills of 1886 and 1893. Most of

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their provisions were substantially identical. Both Bills established an Irish Legislature with an Irish Executive responsible to it. Both divided the proposed Legislature into two Houses. Both placed the judiciary and the police under full Irish control. Both forbade the Irish Parliament to deal with matters affecting the Crown, with the naval or military forces of the Kingdom, with trade, navigation and coinage, and with the establishment and endowment of any religious institution. Both maintained the Customs Union and debarred the Irish Legislature from imposing duties on British or foreign goods. Both granted to Ireland the right to levy her own taxes and both fastened upon her the responsibility of paying to the Treasury in London an annual contribution amounting to eight and a half per cent. of the British revenue. Where they differed was in the arrangements made for representing Ireland in the Imperial Parliament. In the Bill of 1886 no Irish members were to sit at Westminster and Ireland would thus enjoy taxation without representation. In the Bill of 1893 eighty Irish members were to attend the British Parliament and vote, if they chose, on Imperial and Irish questions, but on no others. This plan was hopelessly unworkable and hardly stood a day's discussion in the House. Mr. Gladstone abandoned it in favor of retaining eighty Irish members at Westminster with plenary powers of voting. The objection to this was that Ireland would then be governing not merely herself, but England, Scotland and Wales, too. But it was not on any point of detail that the Bills were rejected, the first by the House of Commons, the second by the House of Lords, and both with the overwhelming concurrence of the English people. What decided their fate was, first, a conviction that their introduction was the price of a disreputable deal with the Irish vote; secondly, indignation at the recklessness which would thus throw the British Constitution into the melting-pot; thirdly, an instinctive perception that Home Rule was but a stepping-stone to separation and that two Parliaments would entail endless friction and suspicion, and possibly open war between England and Ireland; fourthly, the belief that Home Rule meant Rome Rule and that Mr. Gladstone was handing over loyal and industrious Protestants to the mercies of rebellious, predatory and bigoted Catholics; fifthly, the plain determination of Ulster to fight rather than submit to be plundered by a Catholic Parliament in Dublin;

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sixthly, the memory of the murderous outrages on man and beast committed, if not at the instigation, certainly without the disapproval, of the Nationalist M.P.'s; and finally, the fierce contempt and hatred felt by the British masses for the Irish people.

The force of many of these arguments and emotions has considerably weakened in the last twenty years. There is to-day a frank recognition of the evils which English misgovernment has inflicted upon Ireland. There is an honest desire to make reparation. There is an effort, almost pathetic in its futility, to understand the Irish character. The old bitterness and rancor have largely, if not wholly, disappeared. The stupid taunt that the Irish are unfit for self-government is now no longer heard. With the gradual emergence of Ireland from the more acute phases of agrarian unrest, with the gradual cessation of crime, the spirit in which the English people approach the Irish Question has been revolutionized. The absurdity of talking of Imperial Federation while Ireland, at the very heart of the Empire, remains disaffected is freely admitted. The irrational and exasperating contradictions in which the English democracy has involved itself by persisting in the impossible task of governing Ireland against the will of the Irish people are felt and deplored. Even Unionism has broadened out into a mellower, more tolerant creed and into a policy of constructive amelioration. It was the Unionist Party that took away from the British "garrison" its hold over Irish local government and created the County Councils on a broad and popular basis. It was the Unionists, again, who six years ago decreed the final abolition of landlordism and pledged the Imperial credit in the sum of nearly $1,000,000,000 to turn Ireland into a country of peasant freeholders. A new generation has grown up in England that knows little or nothing of the catchwords and fears that so passionately stirred the country twenty years ago. I do not say that it favors Home Rule or that the fanatics of Ulster could not again play successfully upon its anti-Catholic prejudices and its witless fear of Imperial disruption. But I am confident that it is no longer so averse from Irish autonomy as it was, and that while it would probably reject any scheme and overthrow any party that aimed at attaining Home Rule by a single stroke, it would be willing to advance step by step towards the final goal of freedom and pacification. It sees, for instance, that the House of Commons grows

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less and less able to discharge the enormous mass of business that falls upon it, and it has no instinctive objection to delegating some, at any rate, of its functions to a local Irish body. It is even, I think, beginning to realize that it is not enough merely to remove tangible grievances and that until the majority of the Irish people feel that they do in some sort control their own destinies and have in a measure a shaping hand in their own government, until they are made conscious of a harmony between Irish sentiment, instincts and responsibility and the daily work of Irish administration, the country will never be contented. And the growth of this consciousness has kept pace with and been paralleled by, as I have endeavored to make clear in the preceding articles, a momentous change in Ireland herself—the birth of a new spirit of unity and interdependence, the weakening of the old fainéant type of Unionism, the gradual but continuous approximation of all Irishmen towards a common centre. The resultant of these convergent and ancillary forces can only be a progressive expansion of Ireland's control over her own affairs. Mr. Birrell in 1907 brought in a Bill which, though very far from Home Rule, though it did not contain a hint or suggestion of any new legislative power or authority, though it did not authorize the levying of a single tax and left majestically unaffected the constitution of the United Kingdom, had the merit of establishing an Irish Council to take over the administration of eight of the principal departments of government, set up a separate Irish Treasury and, more important still, created a new department under lay control for the direction of Irish education. The Bill was rejected by the Irish people in a mass convention, partly because everybody knew that, if accepted by them, it would be thrown out by the House of Lords, partly because the Irish Party saw in the projected Council a body that might rival and distract attention from themselves, partly because the Sinn-Féiners stirred up opposition to the Bill as an "insult" to Ireland and effectively contrasted its narrow and restricted provisions with Mr. Gladstone's Home-Rule measures, partly because the priesthood would not for one moment tolerate the handing over of primary and secondary education to a board of laymen, but chiefly because the Irish people had not yet learned that Home Rule, if it ever comes at all, will come gradually, one stage at a time. I do not know that they have assimilated this fact even

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now; but I am certain they will have to assimilate it or abandon all hope of eventual autonomy. This is not equivalent to saying that Home Rule is an unrealizable dream. The exact contrary is both my hope and my belief. Not a measure has been passed for Ireland during the past hundred years that was not a step towards final self-government. This process will unquestionably continue and no statesmanship can now restrain it. Even Unionists confess that Home Rule is at once inevitable and impossible —impossible, they mean, because they have never seen a Home-Rule Bill that promised to be workable, inevitable because the whole current of events both in England and in Ireland is setting full and fair towards it. How and when and in what form it will be granted I admit at once I do not know and dare hardly guess. But that ultimately, as the coping-stone to a successive enlargement of their liberties and opportunities, the Irish will find themselves in possession of a measure of self-government that will satisfy their national aspirations, seems to me little less than one of the certainties of the future.

But, after all, one comes back to the point that there is little England can do for Ireland compared with what the Irish can do for themselves. It is the penalty of bad government that it does more harm than its reformation can cure. English rule in Ireland has often been cruel, oftener still stupid, patronizing and inapplicable, and never more so than when best intentioned. It has helped to make, it has probably had a larger share than any other single cause in making, Ireland and the Irish people what they are to-day; and there are few defects in the Irish state, and few shortcomings in the Irish character, which cannot be traced back originally to English misgovernment, or which have not, at any rate, been intensified by that misgovernment. But no fallacy can be greater than to suppose that what bad legislation has done good legislation can undo. Human affairs are not so simple as all that, and the effects of a vicious policy will not only endure long after the policy itself has been reversed, but may even remain uninfluenced by its reversal. This is what has happened, and what will happen, in Ireland. It is only in the last seventy years or so that the English have seriously tried to make amends to Ireland for the afflictions of seven centuries, and only in the last fifteen years or so that the recuperative principle has been allowed even a partial chance. It seems to me idle to sup-

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pose that a people who have been so crushed and oppressed as the Irish, and whose economic and mental growth has been so long and so deliberately stunted, can be brought back to health by a single restorative, or, indeed, by any restorative at all that is administered externally. Not only has England not overtaken the ill effects of her misrule in Ireland, but she never can overtake them. They have outdistanced any real help that she could render them; they can only be restrained and destroyed by the Irish themselves. England's power of assistance is limited merely to the removal of grievances, the redressing of injustices, the creation of opportunities, the adoption, so far as her imaginative obtuseness will permit her, of an attitude of understanding and sympathy. Beyond that she cannot go. The far more arduous task of rebuilding the national character of the Irish people is one that can only be grappled with in Ireland and by Irishmen. There is a striking passage in Mr. George A. Birmingham's novel, "Benedict Kavanagh," which says, as I cannot help thinking, almost the final word on this matter. A priest is pointing out to Benedict the improvement in the manners, surroundings and character of the people in a Connaught village. Benedict supposes that it is the priest who has done it for them. "No," comes the answer, "I have not done it for them. There you touch the great mistake which has brought to ruin so many fine-sounding schemes. Things must not be done for our people. They must learn to do things for themselves. Nothing, literally nothing, can be done from outside. Have we not had enough of that? Money poured out, wasted. Strangers coming to teach and going away disheartened. For our people there is only one hope, and that is in themselves, themselves alone."

Holding by this formula and its implications, I cannot for one moment persuade myself that Home Rule would bring the Irish millennium. The character and temperament of the people are altogether beyond England's power to influence; for whatever is remiss in their moral or economic aptitudes, they must find and furnish their own remedies. No legislation at Westminster, no mere adaptation of the constitutional machinery, can give them the force and virility, the balance and backbone, the perseverance, the contempt for unveracity and deceit, and all the other strong qualities in which candor itself must admit their deficiency. One of the great troubles with Ireland is that no Irishman will say

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what he thinks. In all politics one has to allow for a certain difference between private and public utterances, but in no politics is the difference so profound as in Irish. For bodies to pass resolutions to which all present are secretly opposed; for Irish politicians to deride in conversation and in private letters pretty nearly everything that they are engaged in upholding in Parliament and on the platform—these are the every-day phenomena of Irish affairs. Make-believe, a conscious insincerity and the miasma of moral cowardice permeate the entire country. There is no land in which there is more volubility of speech and less real liberty of thought, and as a consequence less democracy, than in Ireland, no land in which the individual counts for so little and the "organization," whether clerical, political or agrarian, for so much. If half a dozen leading Nationalist M.P.'s were to say on a public platform one-half the things they mutter in private about the devitalizing tyranny of the Church over the social life and mental development of the people, it would do infinitely more for the essentials of Irish welfare than the most perfect of Home-Rule Bills. Over far too large a part of Ireland terrorism is the rule of life, opinion is no more than the bellowing of the loudest claque, civic spirit is represented by the wranglings and intrigues of factions, performance fails to follow promise, patriotism finds its only expression in a litter of histrionic "resolutions," the very conception of industrial discipline seems to have perished, agriculture has become a question of rent and not of work, of how little can be paid for the land, not of how much can be got out of it, witnesses perjure themselves with Asiatic liberality, juries return verdicts that every man in the twelve knows to be against the evidence, the individual cowers beneath the priest, and the whole conduct of life is scaled down to a turbulent level of selfishness, langour, intimidation, inefficiency, falsity and superstition. It is precisely in such communities as these that the people are most forward in speaking of themselves as "our noble but oppressed race," and in placing upon every shoulder but their own the responsibility both for their poverty and its relief. I quite admit that British misgovernment probably deserves most of the blame so freely ascribed to it, but I doubt whether it deserves it all. Too much self-pity, too much self-praise, added to misunderstanding and detraction from without, acting upon a national character always prone to an easy

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fatalism, and reinforced by a convulsive history that has thrown to the surface all the unhealthy elements of society, have unquestionably confused the standards, misdirected the energies and weakened the moral fibre of but too many of the Irishry.

Home Rule in itself, it must surely be very clear, will not exercise these painful and debilitating qualities, or at least will not do so at once; and to advocate autonomy on the supposition that it will effect some immediate and miraculous transformation in the material fortunes or the moral texture of the Irish people seems to me altogether misguided. On the contrary, those who believe in Home Rule should prepare themselves, and without dismay, for the anticipation that its first results might be almost heart-breaking and that Ireland under a Parliament of her own might present an initial aspect of confusion worse confounded. If they believe—and I do not see how any other belief is possible—that there is no one cure just as there is no one cause for Irish ills, they will not claim for their remedy any finality of virtue. They will recommend it not as a panacea, but as an auxiliary. Home Rule in its relation to Irish character—and is anything of much moment by the side of character?—holds precisely the position of the Wyndham Act in relation to Irish agriculture. The land tenure system, with its vitiating war of classes and its deflection of the national mind upon the single question of rent, caused the fundamental problems and realities of an agricultural existence to remain neglected and, indeed, almost unrealized. They could only emerge and claim their paramountcy when that system was readjusted. The merit of the Land Purchase Acts is not that they make agriculture a success forthwith, but that they make success possible by creating the conditions in which it is not only worth striving for, but is seen to be worth striving for. They are performing the indispensable work of clearing the ground, leaving it to the peasants themselves to erect on it the best superstructure of which they are capable. In much the same way the Irish mind and character have been poisoned and turned from the channels of productivity and from the understanding of the true source of national well-being by the struggle for Home Rule and the methods by which it has been waged. To grant Home Rule is not to make the Irish character instantaneously strong, but it is to furnish the fusing and essential element out of which strength may be slowly formed, an element which,

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with things as they are, is not merely wanting, but is all but unattainable. It is an old truism, but none the worse for being old, that responsibility in the long run is the only thing that makes men responsible; and a people perpetually at strife with its rulers, its national genius thwarted, and its national aspirations throttled, is a people desperately handicapped in the evolution of self-reliance and virility. Ireland, as I have tried to show, is making, on her own initiative, efforts that are little less than heroic to overcome this handicap. She is developing character; she is developing unity; she has started, it might almost seem, on a path which, if it does not end in her being given what she wants, may end in her taking it. The function of England, at its widest, is confined to helping her to help herself. To attempt to supersede her own valiant endeavors after regeneration from within would be as senseless and as futile as to attempt to check them. All that England can usefully do is to second, foster and stimulate them, and to provide the opportunity for their further evocation. It is for that reason, if she is really desirous of Irish well-being, that she will ultimately grant Home Rule.

SYDNEY BROOKS.

THE END.

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PROFESSOR CROSS'S LIFE OF STERNE.

BY W. D. HOWELLS.

THE "Life and Times of Laurence Sterne," which Mr. Wilbur L. Cross, Professor of English in the Sheffield Scientific School at Yale, has lately given us, is a biography of such measure and make as to be a long delight to any reader who loves quiet inquiry and judicious conclusion respecting a disputed character. We ourselves came to it with a rebellious doubt whether the Laurence Sterne of Thackeray's "English Humorists" was the Laurence Sterne of nature, though it might be the Laurence Sterne of history. We had instantly accepted that portrait as a true likeness when we first knew it fifty years ago, but in the course of the ensuing half-century our misgivings had mounted to a climax of rejection, waiting only the skilful touch of such a biographer as Mr. Cross to cap it. Not that his conception of Sterne is merely a denial of Thackeray's; he mentions that perhaps half a dozen times in the course of his leisurely narrative, and he scarcely anywhere very formally or actively disputes it. But you learn to know another man from him on almost the same lines: a Sterne who was not a hypocrite or libertine, but a man prompt in all the minor relations of life, true to his word whenever he could be, and courteously sorry when he could not; no habitual, if ever, sinner against women, but a faithful friend to men; a trifler with texts but not with truths; indecent as his age was indecent, indecorous in his literature rather than his life, though rather a scandalous priest in both; mainly a light nature, playing with his own feelings, though they were real enough feelings, and touching the deeper as well as shallower emotions in others; with a sense of propriety which he constantly insulted; essentially humorous and entirely anomalous; an indefatigable

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artist, and such a master of natural English as never was before or has been since.

Mr. Cross fights no battle for the man whom he never makes his hero, but whom he is so gently and carefully just to throughout, with a charmingly humane, a delicately urbane sense of his indefensibility where he is indefensible. There he allows you are right, if Sterne is wrong; but if you come to him with certain prepossessions, certain prejudices, he corrects your judgment, not by argument of any sort, but by trusting himself to the testimony in the case. There is, for example, the whole business of Sterne's relations to women which, if you imagine them from sentimental or salacious passages in his books, you take for as wicked as any one pleases. But from this sane and candid biography, you learn that he never was unkind to the most difficult of mothers, when she came to batten on him in the belief that he had married a rich wife, but after vainly entreating her to remain in Ireland and live on her pension, did everything that a good son could to satisfy her rapacity; that so far from neglecting his wife he cared for her in her insanity, and supported her beyond his means in her wilfully separate life; that he did everything he could to provide for her and his daughter after his death, and that they shamelessly and ruthlessly turned into money all of him but his bones, which indeed had gone to the dissecting-table, not through his landlady's anxiety for her rent, but through the enterprise of the professional resurrectionists. On the other hand, it is shown that the inveterate sentimentalist was his whole life long a lover of women, either the idea of them or the fact of them; but none of his adorations were very serious except one, in which he imaginatively arranged with the lady to marry her after his wife and her husband should be dead, but was frustrated by their both outliving him. In the mean while he did her no harm beyond turning her head, and he took good care of his wife and daughter, where they preferred to live in the south of France, leaving him to wear himself out amidst the joys and perils of his triumphal sojourn in London.

There never was so brilliant a career in the history of literature as that of the witty young country parson who came up from Yorkshire to feast on the fruits of his fame among the Fair and the Great in the English capital. He was meanwhile far gone in consumption, but between "spitting blood," as he called

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his hemorrhages, in the old-fashioned terms, and frequenting the dinners and suppers of the lords and ladies who were killing him with kindness, he was jubilantly happy without a scruple of conscience to molest him. But we must not let the glitter of the scene blind us to the reality that this silly man of genius, though he was innocence and virtue compared with most of the company he kept, was living an evil life and when not evil a false life. He was far better than most people, most women as well as men, about him. But the charm with which these debauched one another died with them, while his lived after him. That was the great day of the literary influence of English writers on the Continent. It began with the "Spectator"; Richardson's lumbering novels were still more popular in every country; and in France and Germany the admiration of Sterne was a brevet of intellectual quality. So far as his artistry was concerned, the admiration of him was a proof of taste, but for the morality the best that can be said of Sterne is that his behavior was, at its grossest, more decent than his literature. The splendor of its success has long since waned, but the beauty of its art cannot be forgotten. There it is as bright as ever for any one who can master his repugnance or his regret for the matter of it. Sterne's English is the most natural English that ever was written or "wrote," as he would have written; it is the very manner of the spoken language; it halts, it hesitates, it turns upon itself; it puts the preposition last, where it belongs; it emulates the beauty of a tree or flower rather than the symmetry of animal life; it has no care for antithesis; it balances itself only from the thinker's brain and flies along the swaying thread of sympathy to the reader's mind, where it lights easily, softly, joyously. It abounds in elision, in ellipse, in all the gay informalities of graceful talk; for once, and, alas! only for once, the language forgets to be verbiage. All the wretched devices of schoolmastery are absent from it; and it still remains the model of English which no modern English writer has formed himself on, but which freed the style of Heinrich Heine from the clumsy gait of the German tradition and taught it to run, to leap for joy, to dance.

It is a pity that some such "conclusion" concerning Sterne's literature as that concerning his character did not form part of Professor Cross's scheme. His own manner is so easy and simple

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that he must sympathize with the naturalness of Sterne's English, and he would not have failed, with this fine impartiality wanting in ourselves, to point out that the naturalness was sometimes studied, was affected. He has written a book of rare intelligence, of such insight and conscience, such grasp and such accurate touch, as we do not now recall the like of in recent English biography, and doubt the like of in American. It is rightly called the "Life and Times of Sterne," for his place and epoch, delightfully ascertained and suggested, form the continuous background which his figure is again and again posed against.

W. D. HOWELLS.

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NEW BOOKS REVIEWED.

POETIC DRAMA.

SINCE Ibsen there has been no greater master of dramatic structure than Sudermann. Each one of the four short, one-act plays in this volume* is a model showing how plot, character, crucial and revealing moment may be compressed into twenty-five pages.

There is a tendency in the human mind to reduce life to one force, a monistic tendency; and Sudermann, like Maupassant and d'Annunzio, is all too much inclined to see sex pervading and ruling all of life. If the first play, "Streaks of Light" (was the original title "Roses"?), is sordid and painful, it is, at any rate, a splendidly glaring picture of the impudence of sin and the pride of evil, one great sardonic laugh. Margot, despite its Kundry motive and its expiation by service and labor, is both shocking and painful. "The Last Visit," a play that takes place over and about a coffin with a dead man in it, is a grim but amazing *tour de force,* and the "Far Away Princess" is a blithe and poetic comedy full of charm and merriment. The translator's work has been most excellently done.

This book† comes from a new and unknown hand and compels serious attention. It is true that the poet has not wholly matured conceptions or complete control of her medium. Her blank verse could well be more flexible and various, but there is real poetry here and abundance of thought nobly expressed. Alcestis, if a very modern woman, is no more so than the Alcestis of Euripides. The offering of the poison to Admetus is a point well made

* "Roses." By Hermann Sudermann. Translated by Grace Frank. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1909.

† "Alcestis." By Carlota Montenegro. Boston: The Poet Lore Company, 1909.

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and emphasizes his cowardice and futility. The love-making of Apollo stands in all probability for the lure of life and is an opening for much charming poetry, while the incident, somewhat fantastic, perhaps, of Alcestis's love for Hercules may likely be symbolic too, standing for no more than the superior lure of brave deeds and high virtue. The book is full of beautiful and quotable passages. We find in this volume more thought and more real poetry than in any American poetic drama of the year.

It is not well to herald a book with too high praise. Mrs. Marks's volume* came to us laden down with such eulogies as set the standard all too high and leave us with but faint commendation for a rather gracefully written, charmingly treated legend. The Piper is the same pied player of Hamelin whom Browning made so popular. Mrs. Marks departs from the original story enough to make a happy ending, marrying her lovers and returning all the children to their homes. She strips the piper, too, of the glamour of magic and sends him forth alone a-piping in the end.

This Piper can in no wise compare in beauty or eloquence with Georgiana Goddard King's fine figure, Messer Piepowder, in the "Way of Perfect Love" published last year; nor, indeed, now that the comparison is instituted, do the songs in the poem compare favorably in singing quality or beauty of concept with those in Miss King's beautiful poem. Occasionally Mrs. Marks annoys her reader by a reminiscent line, as when she writes of hearts "stabbed awake," so inevitably recalling Stevenson's over-familiar, "And stab my spirit broad awake." But when all is said and done we must be grateful for whatever poetry is left in this workaday world, and here and there throughout "The Piper" one runs into little fragrant closes of beauty such as the Piper's summons to Barbara to join the wandering life and his apostrophe to the Lonely Man.

William Vaughan Moody was a poet; at one time the most promising of American poets. For some obscure reason he turned his back on the muse who showered her favors on him and took

* "The Piper." By Josephine Preston Peabody. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Company, 1909.

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to prose drama of Western life. We would rather have one poem like the "Daguerreotype" or the "Gloucester Moors," one song like "Song Flower and Poppy" than twenty prairie or mining dramas. It was doubtless of set purpose that Mr. Moody turned to interpreting the life of the people, but the life of a people is not likely to be caught by any such deliberate, artificial purpose. When a man expresses his own soul, and his soul is one with the people's, then we have a national poetry. This is only by way of saying that after the "Poems" and "The Fire-bringer" the plays are disappointing. In itself, however, the "Faith Healer"* is a readable, well-constructed play well adapted to the stage. Mr. Moody is always capable, professional and interesting. Occasionally even here the poet in him peeps through, as in Uncle Abe's speech about the God Pan: "I'se spied 'm, sittin' in de paw-paw bushes, when de snakes a-runnin' an' de jays a-hollerin' an' de crick a-talkin' sassy to hisse'f."

The characters are admirably balanced—the mystical and exalted wife, old Beeler with his untutored faith in Spencer and Darwin, Rhoda, the Magdalene, Martha, busy about many things, and the young healer himself living half in the natural and half in the supernatural world. It is a good play, but we refuse to accept anything less than great poetry from Mr. Moody with enthusiasm.

CRITICISM.

It is now several years since Professor Bradley published a memorable book on "Shakespearian Tragedy." He was not wholly well advised to make another volume, after so long an interval, of what remained of his lectures as Professor of Poetry at Oxford.† They are not precisely *réchauffés,* but they are avowedly second best, later winnowings, *beaux restes.* The philosophic atmosphere of present-day Oxford has got into the pages, and the discussions of the nature of poetry and of tragedy are rather befogged, that of the sublime rather bald; many of them expend pomp and paraphernalia to say a small and simple thing. Yet that on the Shakespearian stage is worth the price of a whole volume of neo-

* "The Faith Healer." By William Vaughan Moody. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1909.

† "Oxford Lectures on Poetry." By A. C. Bradley. London: Macmillan & Co., 1909.

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realism, if need were, and most readers will feel the same about that on "Shakespeare the Man." All perhaps will feel it, even such as radically disagree with his conclusions about what must be at the last largely matter of opinion. And on "Antony," on "Falstaff," he is only less fine than he was on "Macbeth" and "Othello." A special curiosity spices his attitude to the romantic poets. Any reader could have foreseen him an impassioned Wordsworthian, but not so quickly perhaps an estimate of Shelley so fine and high, so all but right. Shelley is rarely understood aright, rarely praised enough; the great book on our greatest lyrical genius is yet unwritten. But here is a noble harbinger. Yet when all is said, the gallanter thing would have been to discard these notes, as Aristotle, one fancies, discarded so many of his, and stand by the single really great book till he was ready to do another as fine—even, who knows, perhaps on Shelley?

Vernon Lee has given us two books at once this winter by reprinting, to the general content, one of fifteen years ago, and as in that she recites a sort of palinode to an essay in Euphorion she now covers and in a sense sums up the whole of her exquisite and priceless contribution to the comprehension and appreciation of art, and, furthermore, to the sum of beauty in the world. The attitude half of terror, half of exultancy, before the splendors of the Renaissance, gave place long ago to a quieter and deeper enjoyment that drank of stainless wells and interpreted heavenly wisdoms. In "Laurus Nobilis"* she essays the high task of reconciling the rarest beauty with daily life, the æsthetic bias with passionate care for the common good, the love of art with ultra-social morality. She is, in short, a perfect Platonist who has come around precisely to where Plato himself ended, and in reconciling æsthetics has brought loveliness under the yoke of righteousness. Gravely and deliberately she faces all the problems and dangers that beset our own instant of time—gigantic wealth, declining taste, unconscious grossness and selfishness on the one side, stunted and sordid apathy on the other. From such to save us she offers her solution—a valid and austere, a beautiful and passionately human and utterly unselfish solu-

* "Laurus Nobilis: Chapters on Art and Life." By Vernon Lee. "Renaissance Fancies and Studies." By Vernon Lee. London: John Lane, The Bodley Head. New York: John Lane Company, 1909.

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tion. This is a way easier for her in Italy than for us in America, but a way always possible, promising an ultimate and general good. It is a great thing to have lived beautifully always, praising beauty worthily and understanding it more and more as life went on, to have come at last by that way also to the vision of brotherhood and mutual service, and to have revealed these worthily. To whomsoever loves beauty or loves man she must speak as one having authority.

Mr. Symons has set his hand to a book* that one wiser or stronger would have balked at. It is unworthy of his genius as a poet and his honorable and sympathetic fame as an exquisite critic in many arts. It has no beginning or end; nay, it has no life at all. The reader would consent to share his fancy for vapid lady poetesses if he were not so cruelly unjust to Scott; or would allow him every tipsy Irishman that ever trolled a catch if he would but do the fair thing by Anglican clergymen. Heber's hymns may be all rhetoric, but they not only sing as well as Sankey's, but, moreover, they savor now and again of the rich bastard Greek of Alexandrian fathers. As for Keble, he caught Wordsworth's note and sustained it on a shepherd's pipe and wrote at least one line which, because it expresses the very spirit of the Mother Church of England, will not lightly die. The author seems often a poetical *femme incomprise;* nobody quite serves his turn, nobody is quite good enough for him. A few of the restless, uneasy notices are of graver stuff, of very sad and tragical stuff, alas! Always the author is hunting solace for troubled hearts, and he cannot find it and discusses his poet as wearily as a feverish child. He would seem like one sick at soul, who craves from poetry the peace and blessedness that are not within him and that no man can find unless he brings.

Mr. Chesterton goes over the old ground and does lofty tumbling in his book on "George Bernard Shaw,"† but wearily. He has not a single new turn to evoke applause. About the whole scheme, one friend writing up another of those tenets he approves

* "The Romantic Movement in English Poetry." By Arthur Symons. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., 1909.

† "George Bernard Shaw." By Gilbert K. Chesterton. New York: John Lane Company, 1909.

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in no single respect, there is a thought too much of the sawdust, of the tongs and the bones. The outcome is what any man could have foreseen: he begins by clapping his subject hilariously on the back, then he trips up his heels, lastly he sticks a knife between his ribs. The strongest evidence of what is worse than anything Mr. Chesterton says is Mr. Shaw's sanctioning his sayings. Life, whatever those two men may think, is grave and not buffoonery; and man, like the subject of man's worship, is noble, too noble for meretricious book-making. Mr. Chesterton's admirers will read to see what he says, Mr. Shaw's to see what is said; those who are neither to see how the strange creatures have clapper-clawed each other. Incidentally Mr. Chesterton draws rather a pretty, gentle picture, not unlike the ladylike portrait of Shelley and the sisterly account of Keats. Those who have the subject's acquaintance, however, say that the whole truth is not set down here, and that the dramatist is more of a man than the essayist makes him out. Be that as it may, the Puritan, Progressive and Philanthropist, cuts a better figure than the paradoxical reactionary who tries so nimbly to put a spoke in his wheel, to block his game, to depreciate his conclusions. Only two things can give point and savor to a paradox—genius and animal spirits. He lacks the one and has lost the other. The zest is gone from his fooling, the youth from his absurdities.

The neat green volumes of "The Reader's Library"* seem planned for a special place and likely to fill it. They are not so much for those who know books and love them, as for those who long to know them. A man will learn a great deal in reading the introductory essays and tempting bypaths will beckon him, interesting outlooks grow familiar. The two volumes on "Letter-Writers" express not a little taste and sympathy and cut a remarkably wide swathe, being chosen more for what they say than for their way of saying. The volume on the "Essayists" suffers more seriously from the same preoccupation with content and indifference to form, for it is made of scraps and snippings after the fancy of the editors. The introductions to the several sections are helpful, but by their very completeness

* "The Reader's Library." "The Great English Letter-Writers," Vols. I and II. By William J. Dawson and Coningsby W. Dawson. "The Great English Essayists." By William J. Dawson and Coningsby W. Dawson. New York: Harper & Brothers.

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they discredit the extracts. The essay is as much a literary *genre* as the play or the sonnet; and like these it has beginning, middle and end which should be respected. There is a rather touching stress throughout on the obscurer men of letters, and a care to single out such and commend them for which all readers owe especial gratitude; here and there is real treasure-trove.

Here is matter exciting enough offered in four hundred measured pages in long, smooth, unruffled paragraphs as tranquilly as a Sunday sermon.* Mr. Brownell is beyond dispute the most admired American critic now living. In this rôle he sets up Cooper, knocks down Hawthorne, pats Emerson on the back, turns Poe out-of-doors entirely, and is consistently and temperamentally on the offensive toward Mr. James. He has manifestly two standards—one for the great dead, the other for his contemporaries and friends; for while Shakespeare and Dante are nothing like good enough for him, he awards the only unqualified praise to some college professors and editors still with us. If Mr. Brownell has amused himself a little at the reader's expense, with his sliding scale of values, his apparent contradictions that resolve themselves into subtle paradoxes, his whimsical severity toward his own greater prototype in American letters, the urbane and genial Lowell, the reader may take honorable and friendly revenge by recollecting that no man save at his own peril can praise Thackeray without qualification or lean on Arnold in critical judgment. Mr. Brownell is always serious, reflective, weighty, and he gives us here matter aplenty for a month's reading.

FICTION.

It has long been evident that there was a master in Devon. Just as it was clear when Hardy set the finishing touches to the "Return of the Native" that a master was creating, so now it is clear that another great writer is at work in the neighboring shire.† A wonderful drama is this of the sea and the sky and the earth and the creatures that move over the surfaces. Here we find the simple truth, the intimate reality of the face of

* "American Prose Masters." By W. C. Brownell. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1909.

† "The Haven." By Eden Phillpotts. New York: John Lane Company, 1909.

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the earth and keen observation of all its tender and beautiful decorations, the furze, the bracken and the blackthorn, the meadows and the gorse, the great cliffs with their turrets, needles, scarps and counterscarps, and the changing faces they offer to the wheeling lights of night and day; here we have, too, all the shifting and unstable kingdoms of the sea. In a setting so lovingly and tenderly observed that it seems alive with a life all its own we have the moving pageant of a village full of folk. Nor is this world of people slightly built or fragile. When we come to the end we know each one as though we had been born and bred in Brixham where Berry-Head looks out over Tor-Bay. There is Holy John of great faith to whom, because he waits upon the Lord with patience, all things come at last; there is Lydia, the passionate and brave; Dick Varley, a beloved vagabond and a true philosopher; there is the lugubrious Emma Michelmore, who shed tears like the South wind because it was her nature so to do; there is Samuel Brokenshire, a village epicurean and a radical among conservatives; there is the delightful Titus Peach with the shell grotto in his garden and delightful activities among the colors of the barking yard; above all, there is Ned Major and Dorothy Honiwell and their beautiful, rustic idyll at Berry Farm on the cliffs. If in a novel so true to life, so impartial in meting out interest to the human creatures who are busy on the breast of the earth, one can be chosen as hero, it is perhaps Ned Major who holds our hearts from the first chapter at his mother's grave to the last, where at turn of tide he stands out on the bow of the boat and sees the old moon rise and disappear in the cloud banks while the morning watch shivers into being along the ridges of the sea. If in reading this novel one makes a constant silent comparison with the "Return of the Native" the one chapter in which Ned Major's romance flowers can only be compared with the famous chapter in "Richard Feverel," the "Diversions on a Penny Whistle." Eden Phillpotts belongs to the great tradition, and this is the greatest novel he has produced so far. No; great art is not dead. Greatness is busy upon the earth and will be forever.

It is difficult to produce an exact English equivalent for *Sehnsucht*. It is a Teutonic affection of the soul, usually com-

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pact as is this story,* which bears the word as a subtitle, of sentimentality, scenery and sadness. The scenery here is excellent, the sadness intermittent and the sentimentality more or less interesting. If in no wise a great book, this story is prettily told, touching and delicate and ranks high above our own second-rate fiction.

Beyond question those will most enjoy "Penguin Island"† who best know the history of contemporary France, for it is all there, writ so plain that he who runs may read if he has also read the newspapers. But even the most cursory knowledge of events, from the Dreyfus affair to the Steinheil case, even blank ignorance, if such were conceivable, could not keep any one from enjoying the fine, strong irony of Anatole France, the delicate and merciless appreciation of human fallibility, the instinct strong as a coursing dog's, for all the doublings and self-deceptions in our play of motives. The first third of the book, moreover, dealing with the untoward baptism of the Penguins, the consequent necessity of endowing them with souls, and the development into modern civilization of these perfectly normal souls, is of universal and irresistible application. Nothing escapes him, nothing escapes from him. The most bigoted partisan of the archaic is wooed into inextinguishable delight by the chapters on the Penguin Primitives; the faithfulest hagiographer, the most impassioned lover of the saints, by those on S. Maël. The great tradition of satire throughout the ages awakes and speaks; Aristophanes, Lucian, Rabelais and Swift acclaim a younger brother. He writes in the ancient French vein, the vein of Voltaire as well as Rabelais; he offers the Gallic salt and the great laugh. Yet the tone is exquisite, the touch deft and dexterous past belief, and through and under all runs a delicate thread of tenderness almost, towards the creature kind, towards men who toil and suffer, towards poor, absurd human nature. Out of the Garden of Epicurus, out of that comprehension which, understanding and pardoning all, smiles indulgently, comes this memorable and irresistible piece of whimsical history.

* "Funchal." By Norbert Jacques. Berlin: G. Vischer Verlag, 1909.
† "Penguin Island." By Anatole France. A translation by A. W. Evans. New York: John Lane Company, 1909.

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Mr. Hichens has taken for his "Bella Donna"* a type somewhat similar to that of Sudermann's Lily, but he has not done so well by it. He has elevated the lady's birth, her character, her social surroundings. Writing for a race that Continentals call hypocritical and that ourselves call delicate-minded, he could do no better probably. The penalty is that as we do not believe in his smart people we suspect equally his Egyptians. As for his Nile, it is not half so good as his desert. What a man has once done well he should painfully avoid recalling. He has learned structure from French masters, but he has been a little demoralized of late by the success of certain unwieldy novels of quite another sort. This is a little too like its own stream of the Nile, morbid, ceaseless, marked only by eddies and windings. The great novels are carved out of life or built up of psychology. There is no third sort. Yet this is very readable.

The privilege of getting to the heart of the past is one of the few compensations humanity possesses for its perpetual misunderstanding of the present. But it is a privilege open at first hand to but few. There is no single key that will unlock the verities of a dead age. History will not if by history is meant a mere chronicle of events, of battles, diplomacy and the rise and fall of States, or even if it essays its nobler function of tracing the course and progress of the movements that have shaped thoughts and beliefs and the constitution of society. Romance will not unless, as in "*Romola*," it is buttressed by an abounding knowledge and the genius that can sympathize and portray, and unless, too, it preserves a happier balance between fact and fancy than George Eliot was able to maintain. A very rare conjunction of qualities is necessary if an attempt to reconstruct and visualize the past is to satisfy our sense of truth and our sense of life. The brain to master the accumulations of research instead of being fettered by them, the eye to distinguish the essential, revealing fact or trait or custom in events and men and society, the power of dramatic imagination moving, tense and concentrated, as familiarly among bygone days as one moves about one's house, the sensibilities to capture the spirit and standpoint and search the

* "Bella Donna." By Robert Hichens. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company, 1909.

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soul and emotions of men and women three hundred years in their graves, and, lastly, the incommunicable art that will present the whole with a flashing nearness—all these are needed, and with them all the author of "Gentleman Errant"* is generously equipped. Mrs. Henry Cust has, indeed, produced a fascinating and brilliant book. Taking four old German chronicles of the later Middle Ages, she follows the hero of each one of them through his journeyings and adventures over western Europe, weaving them into a narrative that is an admirable mingling of archaic quaintness and modern vivacity. Steeped in the spirit and literature of the period, prolific of the happiest notes and illustrations, she carries her weight of erudition with a most gallant and seductive grace. And what a period it was that these annals so delightfully cover:

"Within this century and a half—that is, from about 1450–1600 happen the Renaissance, the Reformation and the Counter-Reformation; the distribution of the printing-press, the revelations of Copernicus and the discovery of America; the growth, the triumph and the disintegration of the Holy Roman Empire; the evolution of England from the brilliant adolescence of the Plantagenets to the splendid maturity of the Tudors; the transformation of France from the formless impotence of half-dead feudalism to the ordered might of an absolute sovereignty; the conversion of Spain from a land of chaos to a land in bondage to the uttermost letter of law and orthodoxy; the abasement of Italy through the indignity of her politics and the exaltation of Italy through the supremacy of her art. And though these chronicles are but scattered pebbles on a crowded shore, though their heroes pass strenuous lives in almost perfect ignorance of the vast movements that are surging round them, yet even the meanest has not remained untouched by the mighty tide."

It is, indeed, one of the engrossing charms of this volume, that against this prodigious background, now bright, now thunderous, but always quick with the forces and ferment of unsuspected change, are set with consummate realism the lives and doings, the petty interests and passions, of four typical knightly figures. We see them exactly as they were and as they moved, where and in what state they journeyed, how they dressed and feasted and gambled and fought and courted and danced their little dashing lives away. We follow them from Salisbury to

* "Gentlemen Errant"; being the Journeys and Adventures of Four Noblemen in Europe during the Fifteenth and Sixteenth Centuries. By Mrs. Henry Cust. New York: Dutton & Co.

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Cracow and from Portugal to Denmark, through "the humming plains of Burgundy and Flanders, the leafy parks of England, the mellow gardens of France, on the desolate Spanish uplands and in the fruit-filled Spanish valleys, among the lovely streets and lawless highways of Italy," now lodging in the squalid sties of Poland, now camping on the dreary battle-fields of the Low Countries. All the tumult and color of the time, the ceremonies, miracles, customs, characters, revels, courts, superstitions, the external aspects and internal economy of country after country, are here compressed and cut and polished for us in five hundred unflagging pages. It is the human, intimate, picturesque details of a resounding epoch that Mrs. Cust has preserved for us, embroidering them with the deftest fingers on to the records of her four gentlemen errant. Her style is precisely suited to her purpose and subject—full of life and rhythm and swift, sure movement; eloquent, ornate and telling; a rich and glittering setting for the splendid animation of the pageant she unfolds. We know of no book quite like this. It is at once history vitalized by translation and condensation into a handful of intensely human personalities; romance deriving fresh interest and realism from history; and both history and romance illuminated by deep and vivid learning and linked by an exquisitely adjusted art into a sequence of living narratives. In other words, the book has completely succeeded in the aim which one presumes Mrs. Cust set before her—that of displaying the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries in Europe as eras not alone of great movements, but of breathing men and women, and of showing us, in a succession of graphic instances, the bent of their minds, the nature of their surroundings, their habits and appearances, their shifts and triumphs, and the strange, wild, flaming thing they made of life. In these four gentlemen errant Europe as it was between the taking of Constantinople and the defeat of the Spanish Armada lives again before us, now gruesomely, now charmingly, at times a riot of war and waste, at times a splash of primitive splendor, but vital and enthralling always. It is a very real and a very welcome addition to our store of knowledge and entertainment that Mrs. Cust has made.

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MAR 8 1911
MILES PARK BRANCH

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¶ "Men are funny—funny as some women."

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¶ "This asylum is over ninety years old, but looks much older."

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